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Study Abroad and Carnegie Doctoral/Research Extensive Universities: Preparing Students from Underrepresented Racial Groups to Live in a Global Environment

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STUDY ABROAD AND CARNEGIE DOCTORAL/RESEARCH EXTENSIVE
UNIVERSITIES: PREPARING STUDENTS FROM UNDERREPRESENTED RACIAL
GROUPS TO LIVE IN A GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Public Policy and Administration at Virginia Commonwealth
University.

by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated in memory of my loved ones: Inez D., Demetrius A. and Donna Y. It is also dedicated in loving memory of Walter Grooms whose support and confidence encouraged me to embark upon this process and to my beloved nephew, Peter James whose shining light inspired me to complete the process. It is because of their season in my life and their everlasting impact that I have grown to accomplish this.

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Abstract

STUDY ABROAD AND CARNEGIE DOCTORAL/RESEARCH EXTENSIVE
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Virginia Commonwealth University, 2007.

Major Director: Robert D. Holsworth, PhD
Dean, College of Humanities and Sciences

The purpose of this study was to identify current practices in study abroad offices and to investigate factors that may impact the number of minority students that participate in study abroad programs. The predictors, commitment to study abroad, proportion of staff and student workers, and awareness were selected for this current exploratory study are a result of the literature review. The other selected variables: endowment, financial aid and SAT/ACT scores are predictors typically used in higher education.

This exploratory research focused on the policies, procedures, and strategies implemented allowing us to comprehensively describe the activities and efforts study abroad personnel employ in American higher education. We used as our population the Carnegie 101 public doctoral/research extensive universities that serve undergraduates. The researcher implemented the Study Abroad Office Survey to collect the data. The researcher conducted multiple regression analyses to examine whether the proportion of all students studying abroad is influenced by endowment, percent of a university's students receiving financial aid, university's commitment to internationalization and study abroad, the SAT/ACT scores, and the proportion of staff. The results of the regression reveals that the proportion of staff was highly significant Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta=.518$, $t=5.233$, $p < .0005$). Results indicate that the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers. For every unit increase in the proportion of staff and student workers the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is increased by .518. In other words, for every unit increase in the proportion of staff and student workers there will be a $\frac{1}{2}$ student increase in the number of students studying abroad. Or there will be an increase of one student abroad per 2000 students.

The researcher conducted independent samples t tests to address the awareness factor. Results indicate that there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad

office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity ($t = 2.595$, 70 df, $p = .012$).

Employing systems theory, the researcher recommends that higher education administrators should consider embedding internationalization in the curriculum by finding ways of making an international experience a more routine part of attending a twenty-first century university. The researcher further recommends continued lobbying efforts regarding the fate of the Abraham Lincoln Fellowship legislation.

CHAPTER I

Introduction

With the world integrated by economics, communications, transportation, and politics, Americans increasingly see that they live and work in a global marketplace of goods, services, and ideas. Policy makers and the public want educational programs to reflect the international ties that bind people as they bind nations. Colleges and universities must produce graduates who know other cultural histories, languages, and institutions. American institutions of higher education must endeavor to broaden understanding of world events by offering the perspectives of other cultures (Pickert, 1992; Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development, 2006; Schoorman, 2000).

The global age has arrived and as a result internationalization is transforming higher education (Kauffman et al, 1992). The general goal of internationalization is the expansion of world knowledge and intercultural understanding, which are essential for people to function effectively in an interdependent world (Kitsantas & Meyers; 2001; Pickert; 1992). A more specific goal is global competence among college graduates, enabling them to perform successfully in a global world and global marketplace (Advisory Council for International Education Exchange, 1998; Pickert, 1992). The components of global competence are knowledge of the world, cultural sensitivity,

language proficiency, favorable attitudes towards ethnic differences, and skills for functioning effectively in international or cross-cultural situations (Lambert, 1995).

The challenge to educators is to deliver graduates who are competent not only to function professionally in an international environment, but who are equipped to make personal and public policy decisions as citizens of an international society. Colleges and universities in the United States are addressing the challenge in numerous ways (Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development, 2006).

Some institutions include their goals for international education in campus wide strategic plans (Schoorman, 2000; Pickert). Others incorporate comparative and international assessments into individual disciplines (Pickert, 1992). Administrators are devising new structures for coordinating increased international activities. Many institutions are joining consortia to work on international projects with local, national, and international businesses and organizations; such programs are planned and assessed in a multinational, comparative context (Pickert, 1992). Core curricula are being altered to ensure that students know more about the languages and cultures of other countries. Standards for language proficiency are being strengthened. Institutions are revising general education courses, for example, nonwestern countries get broader coverage in history and civilization courses. Throughout the curriculum, faculty are including material from other countries: books, films, videos, music, newspapers and satellite broadcasts (Pickert, 1992). Faculty development opportunities are being created to help implement these changes. Students from U.S. colleges and universities are being

encouraged to study abroad and foreign and American students with international experiences are being asked to bring their backgrounds to the forefront (Pickert, 1992).

Today's college graduates should be prepared for world citizenship as well as national citizenship and should be prepared for future endeavors that require intercultural competence (Lambert, 1995; Pickert, 1992). They should be knowledgeable of and sensitive to the geographic, economic, political, social, historical, and cultural differences among the people of the world; and they should be able to communicate effectively and behave appropriately when meeting and working with non-Americans (Kauffmann et al, 1992; National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad, 1990). A recommended strategy for attaining this knowledge and these capabilities is participation in study abroad as an integral part of an internationalized education (Lambert 1995; National Task Force on Undergraduate Abroad, 1990; Pickert, 1992).

Study abroad, when financially feasible, is arguably the most effective tool for students to achieve an international education and for universities to achieve internationalization. According to authorities on international education (Kauffmann et al, 1992), an effective approach to meeting the goals of internationalization is to promote and facilitate undergraduate participation in foreign study and exchange programs, which are commonly called study abroad programs. To develop global competence and be able to function as global citizens, some universities recommend that study abroad is a means whereby students may increase their international knowledge and skills (Harvard College Curriculum Review Committee, 2005). The effects of study abroad are felt long after students return, as 95 percent of the Institute for the International

Education of Students' alumni reported that their study abroad experiences had a long lasting impact on their world view and a majority said that study abroad influenced their career path (Akande & Slawson, 2004). However, wide variations exist in the kinds of programs available at American colleges and universities and the institutional commitment to such programs (National Task Force on Underground Education Abroad, 1990). This variation is reflected in funding levels, the extent of faculty involvement, the number and type of participants, the location and duration of academic travels, the integration of study abroad programs with general discipline related curricula, credit transfer and financial aid policies, the preparation of students for cross-cultural experiences, and the support services provided on campus and abroad (National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad, 1990).

The term study abroad comprises a wide range of programs and experiences. These experiences include those in which students live in other countries for an extended period of time and attend classes at one of the universities in the host country (Bowman, 1987; Carlson, 1990; Hartle, 1968). When students study abroad, they receive academic credit; participate in classroom settings, seminars and lectures; visit with government officials, business professionals, and journalists; and have the opportunity to take field trips and travel independently (Cash, 1993; Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005; 1993; NAFSA Strategic Task Force on Study Abroad, 2003).

United States government officials recognize the importance of internationalization and have pointed to study abroad as a major means to achieve international and foreign-language competency. President George W. Bush has said that

America's leadership and national security is dependent on our commitment to educate and prepare our youth for active engagement in the international community (United States Senate, 2006). Further, as cited in United States Senate Bill S 3744, former President Clinton remarked that the defense of U.S. interests and the effective management of global issues require greater contact with, and an understanding of people and culture beyond our borders. Study abroad has proven to be a very effective means of imparting international and foreign-language competence to students (Burn et al, 1990; Hansel & Grove, 1986). Inasmuch, in 2005, the United States Senate declared 2006 as the Year of Study Abroad (Commission on Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005). Perhaps more impacting if enacted, the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Act of 2006 was introduced in the Senate on July 26, 2006. The Act establishes the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program to facilitate the participation of undergraduate students in study abroad for academic credit.

The purpose of the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Act is two fold. First, one of the goals is to encourage not less than one million undergraduate students in the United States institutions of higher learning to study abroad for academic credit within 10 years of the date of enactment of the Act. The provision to encourage not less than one million undergraduate students to study abroad is similar to an European Regional Action Scheme for Mobility of University Students Program (ERASMUS) project goal. ERASMUS was created in 1987 to enhance the quality and reinforce the dimensions of European higher education by encouraging transnational cooperation between universities, increase European mobility and work to improve the academic recognition

of studies throughout the European Union. ERASMUS programs are targeted at the higher education institutions in the 27 member states of the European Union, the three countries of the European Economic Area (Iceland, Leichtenstein, and Norway), and Turkey. Currently, 2199 universities in 31 countries are participating in ERASMUS. Since its inception 1.2 million students have participated in an ERASMUS study abroad program (European Community programme in the field of higher education Web site).

Second, the Act “will establish the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program which should reflect the demographics of the United States undergraduate population and ensure that an increasing portion take place in nontraditional study abroad destinations and that students at diverse types of institutions (two-year institutions, minority serving institutions like historically black colleges and universities and institutions that serve nontraditional students) have access to the program” (United States Senate, 2006). The bill provides for grants to institutions of higher education that will in turn provide fellowships to undergraduate students. The bill states that nonprofit and private organizations with experience in programs involving study abroad for academic credit should be consulted as the Lincoln Study Abroad Program is developed and implemented (United States Senate, 2006).

Student participation in study abroad programs is reflected in the variety of United States based non-profit organizations that serve and represent study abroad programs. These organizations include: the Institute for International Education (IEE), the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA): the Association of International Educators, the Fulbright Association, Council on International Education

Exchange (CIEE), Forum on Education Abroad, American Council for International Education, International Student Exchange Program (ISEP) American Institute for Foreign Study, and many more.

Studying abroad, regardless of the length (a summer or shorter, a semester, or a full year) can be an integral component of the higher education experience. The junior year abroad was traditionally reserved for sons and daughters of the wealthy, but is of very real value to students as the United States recognizes its role as an integral partner in a global, social, and economic network (Cash 1993; Stoop, 1988). University and college juniors comprise almost 40% of U.S. study abroad participants, followed by seniors with approximately 20%. However, a year is not the length of time the majority of U.S. students study abroad. In fact, only 7.8 % study abroad for an academic year and less than one percent study abroad for the calendar year. Nearly 39 % of United States' study abroad students spend one semester abroad and just over 34 % spend the summer term abroad (Open Doors, 2005). Cost may be a factor in the choice of shorter study abroad programs (Hembroff & Russ, 1993; NAFSA Strategic Task Force on Education Abroad, 2003; Washington, 1998).

Participation in study abroad programs was once perceived as an interest primarily of liberal arts students who wanted to enhance their skills in acquiring a foreign language and their knowledge of the arts or the humanities (Bowman, 1987; Kauffman et al., 1992). However, as air travel and instantaneous communication increased, the incidence of direct social and economic involvement between the countries of the world emerged along with more practical applications of a study abroad

experience for students (Stoop, 1988). In recent years the number of study abroad participants majoring in business and business management has increased. The top three majors that are represented in United States' study abroad participants are social sciences with 21.9 %, business and management with 17.6 % and the humanities with 13.8 %. These three majors represent 53.3 % of the majors of study abroad participants (Open Doors, 2005).

Students who participate in study abroad programs have the opportunity to study in many locations including: Australia, Canada, China, Costa Rica, England, Hong Kong, India, Japan, Israel, Korea, Malta, Mexico, the Netherlands, South Africa, Sweden, Switzerland, and many other countries. The majority of United States students study abroad in Europe. The top destination for U.S. study abroad students is the United Kingdom (Open Doors, 2005). Language is not a barrier for U.S. students who study abroad in the United Kingdom. The next three top destinations are Spain, Italy and France, respectively (Open Doors, 2005). Students can enroll in as many as 15 credits a semester or 30 credits per year. Courses are offered in all disciplines and may be taken either in English or a foreign language (Scott & McMahon, 1998; Washington, 1998).

General Statement of the Problem

There is a disparity in the participation of underrepresented students in study abroad programs enrolled in colleges and universities in the United States. Since the importance of the study abroad experience is to broaden the overall higher education process, any class or group of students who does not participate in a study abroad

program is not fully engaging in the higher education process and is being denied the full value of a college experience (Hembroff & Russ, 1993; Washington, 1998).

In addition to the influence that international learning has on a well-conceived education, international education is increasingly important in the economic sector and has an impact on career development (Gliozzo, 1980; Stoop, 1988). If we assume that one of the reasons students pursue higher education to have higher incomes and a better quality of life, then we should take a look at the income levels for the various groups. The median income for White non-Hispanic households is \$50, 784. The median household income for Asians and Asian American is \$61, 094. The median income for the two largest minority groups is lower; the median income for Black or African American households is \$30,858 and for Hispanic households the median income is \$35, 967 (CPS Annual Demographic Survey, 2005). There are numerous factors, including level of education attainment and the number of minority students actually graduating from college that may account for the difference in income. Educators involved in study abroad believe that having a study abroad experience helps students get a job after graduation (Institute of International Educational, 2003). However, the lack of minority students' participation in study abroad programs represents limited access to the full range of education and career opportunities and is an area of concern, even if it occurs unintentionally (Stoop, 1988).

In 1991, the CIEE identified the following groups as underrepresented in study abroad programs: ethnic and racial minorities, students with disabilities, students from historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) and White males. More recently,

in 2004, the Lincoln Fellowship Commission identified the major underrepresented groups in study abroad as racial/ethnic minorities; males; students majoring in science, engineering and related disciplines; students attending two-year colleges; and students with disabilities (Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program, 2005).

In the 2003-2004 academic year, approximately 16.9 million students were enrolled in United States postsecondary institutions. However, only 191, 321, which represents approximately one percent of those students, studied abroad for academic credit (National Center for Education Statistics; Open Doors, 2003). The American Council on Education (ACE) reports that 36% of all undergraduates in the United States are students of color. Yet, minorities account for less than 17% of the United States study abroad participants (Open Doors, 2005).

If it is not practical for all students to participate in a study abroad program, then it is at least desirable for the opportunities to be distributed equally (Hembroff & Russ, 1993). Students from all backgrounds should have the same opportunity to reap the benefits of a study abroad experience.

It is disturbing that the participation rates in study abroad for minorities are significantly less than they are for White students. It is commendable that the number of study abroad participants overall is increasing, but we must be concerned that the underrepresented racial minorities are not realizing the benefits of participation in a study abroad program.

In considering why students from the nation's two largest minority groups have lower study abroad participation rates, it is always useful to identify factors that are connected to students' backgrounds and the literature points to studies that reveal some of these factors. This study seeks to go one step further. The expectations for adjusting to the very real need for an education that integrates internationalization and the benefits of study abroad programs has been placed on students of color, and none on the institutions that enroll them.

Background of the Problem

It has been more than 40 years since the passage of the Civil Rights Act and more than 50 years after the *Brown v. Board of Education*. Much of the data show that despite numerical growth in higher education participation among underrepresented students, African Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans, and other minority groups continue to experience inequality in higher education (American Council on Education, 2005; Bensimon, 2005). The disparity in the number of minorities participating in study abroad programs may be viewed as one example of the inequity.

Since the 1970s, efforts to provide for educational equity have played a major role in shaping university and college life in the United States. Equity in education means that all students have an equal opportunity to develop to their fullest potential (Bensimon, 2005; Washington, 1998). Equity of opportunity is valued in the public arena and it has sound support within higher education (American Council on Education, 2005). Equity in education is different from sameness. Equity is concerned with justice, meaning that every student has an equal chance to learn. At times, equity requires

different treatment according to relevant differences because students have different potential and diverse needs (Bensimon, 2005; Washington, 1998).

Through a variety of equity programs, colleges and universities seek to create an equality of opportunity for students who may enter higher education with different degrees of readiness and support (Bensimon, 2005). Equity programs are developed for students of color, students with low socioeconomic status, students with disabilities, and female students. The goal of these programs is to level the playing field where conditions beyond the student's control are presumed to mitigate a successful educational outcome are reduced or are all but eliminated (Bensimon, 2005; Washington, 1998).

Since study abroad experiences are deemed valuable to the total higher education process minority students and other underrepresented groups should be proportionately represented. Minority students are not participating in study abroad programs and research has been conducted at the student level of analysis to determine the reasons for the low level of participation among some of these groups. Perhaps, the next step should focus on remedying the problem.

Significance of the Problem

The disparity in the number of underrepresented racial groups in study abroad programs is a source of concern and interest for educators. The majority of students who participate in study abroad programs represents a small segment of the total student population. They are White females from highly educated professional families, majoring in the social sciences and humanities (Open Doors, 2005).

If it is not practical for all students to participate in a study abroad program, then it is at least desirable for the opportunities to be distributed equally (Hembroff & Russ, 1993). In 2002, Hispanics made up 10% of U.S. postsecondary enrollments. Yet, they represented only 5.4% of the study abroad population. During this same period, African Americans made up 11% of postsecondary enrollments but only 3.5% of the study abroad population (National Center for Education Statistics; Open Doors, 2004). The following year, the percentage of students from the two largest minority groups, Hispanics and African Americans actually decreased. In the 2003-04 academic year, 191,321 U.S. students studied abroad. The overwhelming majority (83.7%) of the study abroad participants were White. The remaining 16.3 % constitutes students of color or students from racially underrepresented groups. In fact, 6.3% of the higher education population was Asian or Asian American and 6.1 % of the study abroad population was Asian or Asian American. Hispanics account for nearly 10% of the higher education population and 5 % of the study abroad population. African Americans comprise 11.6% of higher education enrollment and 3.4% of the study abroad population. Native Americans comprise nearly 1% of higher education enrollment and 0.5% of the study abroad population. Please refer to Figure 1 for a 10-year history of study abroad participation by race of undergraduates in U.S. institutions of higher education.

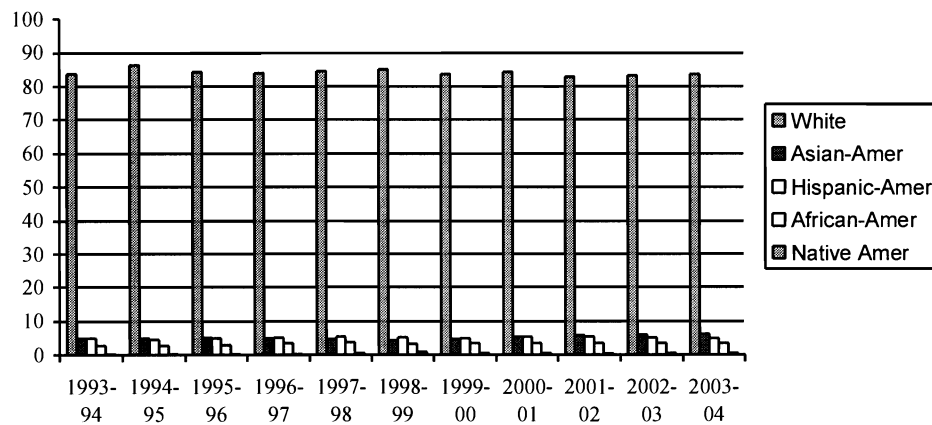


Figure 1: Study Abroad Participants by Race, 1993-1994 through 2003-2004

Historically, since the middle of the 19th century, the typical study abroad student has been a White female (Bowman, 1987; Open Doors, 2004). Therefore, regarding gender, males would be considered an underrepresented group. Research indicates that the disabled would also be considered an underrepresented group. As cited in the NAFSA's Securing America Report to the Strategic Task force on Education (2003) students with disabilities comprise 9 % of those in higher education but less than 1% of those who study abroad. While there are many groups that may qualify as underrepresented, this current study will focus on the significant disparity of the study abroad participant rates of racial minorities. Essentially, for this research, minorities or students of color constitute the underrepresented.

Equal education opportunity is a societal goal with an aim to provide opportunities for all students to fulfill their potential and ambitions. Equity of opportunity and equality of results should not be confused as being synonymous. Equal education opportunity also helps students progress to more advanced education levels by

motivating them to use their ability, interest and determination. In higher education, equal education opportunity provides minority students with the prospect of entering not just some universities and colleges, but all universities and colleges, and to major in not just some fields, but all fields, and to earn not just certain degrees, but all degrees, unfettered by obstacles relating to race, institutional practices and personal attitudes (Washington, 1998).

If equal opportunity is to truly exist, certain conditions must be manifested. These conditions are defined by three concepts: (1) access, (2) distribution and (3) persistence (Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, 1976). Equal education opportunity is not possible without access but it is only one component. Another needed component is the notion that qualified students must be able to choose and be able to enroll in a wide variety of institutions, programs, and fields of study, and must be provided the opportunity to remain in college and earn advanced degrees. One method of measuring equal education opportunity in higher education institutions is to examine the extent that all students, regardless of race and circumstance are able to fulfill their educational aspirations and participate in the numerous educational programs available at institutions of higher education (Bensimon, 2005; Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, 1976).

The conceptual framework guides the design of a study and enables the reader to follow logically the underlying theoretical structure of the study. Equity in education is definitely a concern for this researcher. When one looks at the large, glaring difference in the participation rate of minorities in study abroad programs he or she may quickly

observe that the rate varies by race and surmise that it is because of race. However, no studies have been conducted to determine this and there is no evidence that the difference in participation rates is because of race. Therefore, social justice or equity theories will not be used as the theoretical underpinnings of this research. One theory, systems theory, will provide the guiding framework for this study.

A system can be defined as a collection of interrelated parts that work together by way of some driving process. This approach can be thought of as an assembly line, one that operates as “the product of a system, influenced by and influencing the environment in which it operates” (Birkland, 2001). In terms of functionality, the system receives inputs and generates outputs. Using systems theory, we may investigate to determine what the universities are doing to address the disparity in the participation rates of underrepresented racial groups in study abroad programs.

If the role of international education exchange is as essential to the future economic and political health of the United States as the international community professes, every undergraduate student in the country should be exposed to one or more of its components (Washington, 1998). If educators fail to address the minimal participation of minority students in the international exchange arena, minority students will be further marginalized and the achievement gap among some minority groups may be widened; they will be even less likely to have a role in the political and economic life of the next century. If the U.S. system of higher education is to meet the goals in the proposed Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellow Ship Act, the factors at the institutional level that may influence participation should be investigated.

Purpose of the Study

“It is the task of education, more than any other instrument of public policy, to help close the dangerous gap between the economic and technological interdependence of the peoples of the world and their psychological, political, and spiritual isolation.” ----Senator J. William Fulbright
(Fulbright Mission, 1996-97)

The demographics of the United States undergraduate students abroad should be similar to those of the United States undergraduate student population (United States Senate Bill, 2006). The purpose of this study was to identify current practices in study abroad offices and to investigate factors that may impact the number of minority students that participate in study abroad programs. This exploratory research focused on the policies, procedures, and strategies implemented allowing us to comprehensively describe the activities and efforts study abroad personnel employ in American higher education. We used as our population the Carnegie 101 public doctoral/research extensive universities that serve undergraduates and each university represents a case.

Researchers have attributed several factors including: faculty and staff at the university (King & Young; 1994; CIEE, 1991), finances (CIEE, 1991; Hembroff & Russ, 1993; Millington, 2002; Stoop, 1988; Washington, 1998), family and community (Stoop, 1988), and fears (CIEE, 1991; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Van Der Meid, 2004), to the underrepresentation of African Americans and other minority groups in study abroad programs. However, researchers indicated that although these are contributing factors, the major factor that explains the underrepresentation of minority groups may well be awareness of study abroad programs (King & Young, 1994; Washington, 1998).

Further, institutions of higher education can implement an organizational framework for understanding and implementing internationalization as an institution-wide process. Commitment to internationalization, organizational leadership, availability of resources and an ongoing evaluation of the organizational processes are necessary and critical to the success of internationalization efforts (Schoorman, 2000). Commitment should not only be visible, but vocal and a fundamental component of the mission statement (Schoorman, 2000) and other planning and guiding documents. The lack of institutional commitment inhibits expansion of numbers and diversity in undergraduate study abroad programs and should be addressed (National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad, 1990).

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to identify current practices in study abroad offices and to investigate factors that may influence the number of overall students and the number of minority students that participate in study abroad programs. The following questions based on a review of the literature and current research, were used to guide the study.

Research Question #1. This research will examine whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 1.1: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 1.2: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is mentioned in the

mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀1.3: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀1.4: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class.

H₀1.5: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #2. This research will examine whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 2.1: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 2.2: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀2.3: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀2.4: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's incoming freshmen class.

H₀2.5: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #3. This research will examine whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative

size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 3.1: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 3.2: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀ 3.3: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀ 3.4: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's incoming freshmen class.

H₀ 3.5: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #4. This research will examine whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs.

H₀ 4.1: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad program alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀ 4.2: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀ 4.3: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by university study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

- H₀4.4: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad alumni at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.5: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.6: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.7: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.8: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity.

Research Question #5. This research will examine whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected recruitment activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs.

- H₀5.1: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad program alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.2: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.3: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by university study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.4: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad alumni at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

- H₀5.5: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.6: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.7: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.8: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study the following terms are defined:

Study Abroad: Educational program where students live in another country for an extended period; attend classes at university in host country and receive academic credit, have the opportunity to visit with government officials, business professionals, and journalists and to take field trips independently.

Study Abroad Faculty: Persons employed in the university's study abroad office as university faculty members; not classified staff.

Study Abroad Staff: Persons employed in the university's study abroad office as classified staff; not faculty.

Internationalization: A measure of foreign language entrance and degree requirements, the number of students studying abroad, international courses in the curriculum, international students and faculty on campus, and the degree of institutional support for international programs.

International Education: Activities at colleges and universities that promote global awareness, understanding, competence and expertise: International studies, foreign language studies, area studies, and overseas programs.

Endowment: The funds or property donated to the university as a source of income.

Student achievement: The average score in the 75th percentile on college entrance examinations, either the SAT or the ACT for the university's incoming freshman class.

Commitment to internationalization and study abroad: The mention of internationalization in the university administrative unit's mission statement and the mention of study abroad in the administrative unit's strategic plan. (Mission statements are typically broad visions of what an organization or organizational unit wants to achieve. Strategic plans tend to be more narrowly focused and usually delineates objectives and strategies and assigns responsibility for achieving the goals and objectives.)

Financial Aid: Federal financial aid, either in the form of grants and or loans.

Awareness: The information study abroad office personnel gives its students regarding study abroad programs and services offered at the university they attend.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

Introduction

This section of the research provides a review of the literature and as such is organized in the following sections: Globalization/Internationalization, Internationalizing College and University Campuses, Study Abroad, and Theoretical Framework.

The first section, Globalization/Internationalization discusses globalization and internationalization. The importance and implications of globalization suggest that higher education must internationalize its curriculum to make its graduates more competitive in a global society. Rationale for internationalization is also presented.

The second section, Internationalizing College and University Campuses, presents the role of higher education in preparing for a global society and the different methods that colleges and universities employ to internationalize their curriculum, programs and services.

The section on Study Abroad looks at study abroad programs as an internationalization tool and provides a definition of study abroad as used in this research. The history and benefits of study abroad are presented. In addition, a detailed

description of who studies abroad, along with the reasons students and more specifically minority students, do not participate in study abroad programs is provided.

Next, systems theory, the theoretical framework used as the underpinnings of this study is presented.

As cited in Hansel & Grove 1986, (p.85) Mark Twain wrote in The Innocent's Abroad, "travel is fatal to prejudice, bigotry, and narrow-mindedness, and many people need it sorely on these accounts. Broad, wholesome, charitable views of men and things cannot be acquired by vegetating in one little corner of the earth all one's lifetime" (Hansel & Grove 1986, p. 85).

Globalization

Friedman 2000, (p. 7-8) wrote that globalization broadly refers to "the inexorable integration of markets, nation-states, and technologies to a degree never witnessed before-in a way that is enabling individuals, corporations and nation-states to reach around the world farther, faster, deeper and cheaper than ever before. Waters, 1995, (p. 3) defined globalization as a "social process in which the constraints of geography on social and cultural arrangements recede and in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding."

There have been three great eras of globalization (Friedman, 2000). The first was from about 1492 until 1800. When Columbus arrived in America, that era shrunk the world from a size large to a size medium. The most significant element in globalization in that era was countries globalizing, for imperial reasons, for resources (Friedman, 2000). The second great era was 1800 until the year 2000 and that era

shrunk the world from a size medium to a size small. That era was spearheaded by companies globalizing, for markets and for labor (Friedman, 2000).

We have entered the third era of globalization. In this third era the world is shrinking from size small to size tiny, and flattening the global economic playing field at the same time (Friedman, 2000). In this era, faster markets, faster money, faster information, and faster change are transforming politics, geopolitics, business, culture, and everything else (Friedman, 2000). Some of the changes are great and some are awful, but, the process seems inevitable (Friedman, 2000; Lusane, 1997).

An international orientation or perspective is essential in the global environment. Our colleges and universities should prepare U.S. students for globalization by providing them with an international education (Bowman, 1987; Pickert, 1992; Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development, 2006; Schoorman, 2000). The term international education is often used quite loosely. Inasmuch, the meaning changes depending on the context. Those associated with international programs tend to use the term interchangeably to refer to study abroad and exchange programs. The International Baccalaureate Organization defines international education as studies in politics, multicultural education, psychology, philosophy, social improvement and effectiveness and curriculum (Bowman, 1987; Schoorman, 2000). Chichester, 2003 (p.4), suggests that international education encompasses international studies, foreign language studies, area studies, and overseas programs. Subsequently, activities at colleges and universities that promote global awareness, understanding,

competence and expertise constitute international education (Chichester, 2003; Hope & Scott, 1998).

It is through international education that a degree of internationalization is achieved. Internationalization is defined as a measure of foreign language entrance and degree requirements, the number of students studying abroad, international courses in the curriculum, international students and faculty on campus, and the degree of institutional support for international programs (Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development, 2006). Even though existing literature seems to suggest an apparent growing movement toward internationalization on many of the nation's campuses, including a small set of minority institutions, current research has yet to focus on the role of higher education in integrating minorities into the foreign policy environment (Chichester, 2003).

The degree to which diversity surrounds us today was unimaginable two decades or even one decade ago (Schoorman, 2000). According to a Harvard University website, Political scientist Karl Deutsch suggested that if the peoples of the world interacted more, they would make it possible to form a more cohesive international community. Such interactions would lead to a "we feeling" among communities. As a result, the governments would become committed to the peaceful resolution of international disputes. According to Deutsch, this "we feeling" would enable humanity to unlearn the system of national exclusion emphasized by nationalism and the attitude of absolute loyalty to the state. He even contemplated the formation of a "security community,"

where sovereign states would feel confident enough to trust their national security to a multilateral arrangement (Harvard University Web site).

The quality of life in this millennium will be dependent upon the extent to which all educated citizens are able to function comfortably and effectively in a world where international boundaries are rapidly decreasing. In this new global environment, every human activity occurs in the context of an economic, scientific, social, political, ecological, and technological milieu that knows no international borders (Hinkelman, 2001; Lusane, 1997; Schoorman, 2001). It is important that our higher education institutions be a part of the global environment.

Four distinct rationales, world peace, success in international competition, global knowledge and global cooperation, have provided the impetus for internationalization and globalization. These justifications are based on the international interdependence of the United States and on the lack of global awareness among its citizens (Schoorman, 2000). A Times Mirror survey asked a cross-section of Americans five questions on people, world developments and world events that were currently at the top of the news. Only 6% of the U.S. respondents answered all five questions correctly and 9 % knew four answers; 37 % could answer none of the questions, and 21% answered only one question correctly. In other words, only 42% of U.S. respondents were able to answer at least two questions correctly. Citizens in several other countries were asked the same questions. More than 90% of respondents in Germany were able to answer at least two questions correctly; 67% of respondents in Italy, 62% in France, 60% in Great Britain,

56% in Canada, and 35% in Spain were able to answer at least two of the questions correctly (Patterson, 2001).

The importance of world peace as a rationale for internationalizing education was first recognized during the period immediately after World War I and World War II but its significance is currently being reinforced (Schoorman, 2000). The September 11, 2001, terror attacks and the U.S. led wars in Iraq and Afghanistan are a few more recent examples. The importance of education in the pursuit of peace is based on the assumption that wars are started by people and begin in the minds of men (Smith, 1994).

Competition as a rationale for internationalization involves both, political and economic competition. This rationale assumes that the goal of internationalization is national dominance in all global political or economic matters. Historically, the Cold War provides a basis for the U.S. perspective regarding political competition (Kauffman, 1991; Schoorman, 2000). This rationale can be used to explain the public policy and educational funding for curricular initiatives through Title VI of the National Defense Act, and the inception of the Centers for International Business Education Research (CIBERs) sponsored by the Omnibus Trade and Competitiveness Act. Further evidence of this rationale is obvious as business education curriculum in colleges and universities across this nation emphasizes economic competition on a global rather than regional or national scale (Schoorman, 2000).

Global knowledge as a rationale for internationalization reasons that there is a need for professional success and global competence. The fact that education not provided through a global lens is incomplete and the low levels of global awareness

among the young U.S. adults are two major concerns at the core of this rationale. As cited in Schoorman, 2000 (p. 6) Powell noted in 1966, “the time has come for schools, colleges and universities in the U.S. to realize the importance of international dimensions which education must embrace. No field of intellectual activity should escape the tests of completeness and validity by restriction to the narrow, provincial or chauvinistic confines or interests and experiences of only a segment of the human race.”

Internationalization for global cooperation is rooted in the belief that there is an ideal relationship among nations in a globally interdependent world. First, this rationale is used to explain the practical needs of individuals and institutions resulting from global technological interconnections, increased travel, and global trade. Second, this rationale emphasizes democratic needs, global citizenship and partnership, in solving global problems. Some of these problems include environmental pollution, hunger, disease and terrorism (Schoorman, 2000). This rationale is at the foundation of public policy offerings that include the U.S. participation in the World Health Organization (WHO), World Aids Day and Earth Day, and the formation of the Peace Corps (Patterson, 2001; Waters, 1995).

An institute of higher education’s goal for internationalization typically is rooted in one of these rationales (Hayward, 2001; Schoorman, 2000). Colleges and universities are faced with the problem of how to make a university education relevant in a global society. Over the last fifty years we have moved from a world in which society, commerce, and education were defined in regional, then in the context of nations to

states to one in which we are now being defined in global terms and are now part of the global community (Friedman, 2000; Kauffman, 1992).

World wide, on a daily basis, people from almost every corner of the earth and in between are using products that make them more interconnected. International television news coverage, instantaneous electronic communication, and rapid air travel are but a few examples (Friedman, 2000; Lusane, 1997). Academic research is interconnected with the work of other scholars on almost every continent. In other words, the global village is here (Chichester & Akomolafe, 2003; Friedman, 2000; Kauffman et al., 1989). In response, faculty and administrators are searching for ways to bring our educational programs into the global era. They are looking for ways to internationalize our colleges and universities. Study abroad is one of the most powerful tools available for internationalizing the curriculum in American colleges and universities (Kauffman et al., 1998).

Internationalizing College and University Campuses

The general goal of internationalization is the expansion of world knowledge and intercultural understanding, which are essential for people to function effectively in an interdependent world (Noronha, 1992). A more specific goal is global competence among college graduates, enabling them to perform successfully in a global world and global marketplace (Noronha, 1992; Pickert, 1992). The components of global competence are knowledge of the world, cultural sensitivity, language proficiency, favorable attitudes towards ethnic differences, and skills for functioning effectively in international or cross-cultural situations (Lambert, 1995).

Today's global marketplace demands that employees have cross-cultural skills and an understanding of international business as well as different cultures. Colleges and universities in the United States should be engaged in preparing students to live and compete in the global environment. By reviewing the activities and services provided by the career center at the University of Tulsa, Hinkelman, 2000 (p. 3), in a descriptive study asserts that college and university students have unique opportunities available to them to gain the necessary skills that may help them attain international careers. College and university career centers have a responsibility and role in helping students achieve these goals (Hinkelman, 2001). While U.S. institutions of higher education have begun to respond to the effects of globalization, some researchers suggest that the response has been somewhat slow. Hayward and Siaya, 2000 (p. 2) assert that in the past, colleges and universities have been somewhat slow in incorporating foreign languages and internationalization as a nexus of their expenditures for undergraduate learning. At a minimum, the majority of U.S. colleges and universities have taken the most basic step of including the internationalization discourse in their mission statement (Pickert, 1992; Schoorman, 2000).

Institutions of higher education can implement an organizational framework for understanding and implementing internationalization as an institution-wide process. Commitment to internationalization, organizational leadership, availability of resources and an ongoing evaluation of the organizational processes are necessary and critical to the success of internationalization efforts (Schoorman, 2000). Commitment should not only be visible, but vocal and a fundamental component of the mission statement

(National Task Force on Study Abroad Education, 1990; Schoorman, 2000). Equally important is the role leadership plays in successful attempts to internationalize. The leadership role of several key senior administrators, specifically, the university president, provost or vice president for Academic Affairs, and deans are seen as critical to the success of internationalization efforts. Presidents and vice provosts can initiate and encourage faculty to take advantage of international travel opportunities, communicate the importance of internationalization to the educational mission of the institution, assist in development and fundraising efforts regarding international travel opportunities, and expand the departments involved in international travel. Deans can impact the process by making hiring decisions that support internationalization efforts (Schoorman, 2000).

Just as the organizational framework is important to the internationalization process, resources are equally important. Both, financial and human resources are paramount in achieving internationalization. Some educators note that funding is the biggest obstacle to the process. In fact, internationalization may require the reorganization of funding priorities by the universities (National Task Force on Study Abroad Education, 1990; Schoorman, 2000).

Central to most policies for internationalization, in institutions of higher education, remains the movement of people, students, teaching staff, researchers, and administrators from one country to another for the purpose of acquiring first-hand experience of living, studying, and working in another historical, social, cultural, economic, and political environment (Burn et al, 1990). The urge to learn about other cultures and to learn about different customs is a deep-rooted instinct. The urge to

expand one's own world explains the old British presumption that education was not complete without the continental tour or the opportunity to experience and benefit from world travel (Neff, 1992). Cross-cultural experiential learning is a result of being in direct contact with a culture other than one's own (Burn et al, 1990).

The American public has expectations of its colleges and universities in fulfilling their role in preparing students for internationalization. Using data from the American Council on Education (ACE), Hayward and Siaya (2001, p. 23) found that there is public interest in international issues and events and that the American public recognizes that international knowledge and skills are crucial to daily life and the United States' success in the global economy. The data were collected from two separate surveys. First, a telephone survey of 1,006 people in the U.S., age 18 or older (the general survey) was administered; then a telephone survey of 500 high school seniors that would be attending four-year colleges and universities (student survey) was administered. Each survey was intended to inform higher education institutions about the importance Americans assign international learning programs. Ninety percent of the responses in the general survey agreed that knowledge of international issues would be important to the professional careers of future generations. Participants from the student survey indicated that international skills and competencies would help them work with people from different cultures and provide a competitive edge when entering the workforce. It is the belief of both, the students and the general population, that colleges and universities should provide international education for all students. More than 75 % of the national respondents agree that foreign language should be mandatory for secondary school

students and more than 70 % were in favor of making it mandatory at the college and university level. Nearly 75 % of respondents believe it is important for college students to participate in a study abroad program while working toward an undergraduate degree.

Faculty and administrators could demonstrate a stronger commitment to internationalizing college campuses. Although several institutions have made efforts in recent years to internationalize their campuses, overall there remains a low level of institutional commitment to internationalization, with relatively few institutions including international themes in their mission statements or strategic plans. International education receives support from students and faculty, but many do not participate in international programs on campus (Pickert, 1992; Washington, 1998).

There are numerous means and methods that U.S. colleges and universities employ to internationalize their campus and curricula, including offering classes in foreign languages, recruiting and admitting foreign students, offering classes and degrees in international and global studies, and providing study abroad programs.

Internationalization: Enrolling Foreign Students

It is becoming more difficult for colleges and universities to internationalize their campuses by enrolling foreign students. During the 2003-2004 academic year, the absolute number of international students studying at higher education institutions in the United States declined for the first time in thirty years (Institute of International Education, 2004). This trend continued, on a smaller scale, during the 2004-2005 school year (Institute of International Education, 2005). Although the United States remains the leading destination for foreign students, the competition from other countries is

growing stronger. New Zealand, for example, has seen a dramatic 49 % increase in foreign student enrollments between 2002 and 2003 (Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development, 2005). Tighter visa restrictions instituted as a result of the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks have contributed to the decline in the number of foreign students enrolling in American colleges and universities (Green et al, 2002).

Internationalization: Demand for International Studies

There is demand for greater internationalization. In a 1999 survey of college-bound seniors, 57 % said that they planned to study a foreign language, and half said that they expected to take courses focusing on the history or culture of another country (American Council on Education, 1999). Nearly three out of four students said they believe that their college should offer courses on international topics. Indeed, in 2002, over half of the public indicated that they believed that knowledge of international issues would be important to their careers in the next ten years (Green et al, 2002). The same 2002 survey noted that 74 percent of the public supported a foreign language requirement in college, and the number who “strongly agreed” has increased since 2000. Seventy-seven percent of the public supports international course requirements at the college level, and more than one-third of undergraduates surveyed reported that they were more likely after September 11th to take courses on global issues and cultures.

Internationalization: Foreign Language Enrollments

Increasing international studies courses at all levels requires more teachers who are knowledgeable of the international dimensions of their subjects. A shortage of qualified foreign language teachers, especially in the lesser-taught languages, seriously

hampers our ability to develop proficient foreign language speakers. For example, only 192 Bachelor's degrees, 265 Master's degrees, and 13 doctorates were awarded in 2000-2001 in foreign-language education (National Center for Education Statistics). Dr. Nina Garrett (2004, p. 4), Director of Language Study at Yale University, stated: "We have nowhere near enough qualified teachers—and very limited prospects for training more than a handful of new ones—in the vast majority of the less-commonly taught languages which learners want and need to learn and in which the nation needs proficiency."

Overall, fewer degrees in foreign languages and area studies are being conferred. Over a thirty-year period, from 1970 to 2000, the number of Bachelor's degrees in foreign languages fell by 26 % (from 20,536 to 15,146), while Master's degrees declined by 46 % (from 5,217 to 2,801). In 2000-2001, only 73 Bachelor's degrees were awarded in Middle Eastern Studies, and 693 in Asian Studies. Even fewer Master's degrees were awarded: 87 in Middle Eastern studies and 271 in Asian studies (National Center for Education Statistics). Many universities do not offer programs in Middle Eastern languages or area studies. The total number of undergraduate degrees awarded in Arabic in 2002 was six (National Commission on Terrorist Attacks Upon the United States, 2004).

Though many colleges and universities need to make greater progress on international education, campus internationalization efforts are on the rise and are gaining recognition. Many U.S. universities now have campuses abroad. A curriculum review released in 2004 by Harvard University concluded that all of its students must develop global competence and be able to function as global citizens (Harvard College

Curricular, 2004). To do so, the Harvard review recommends that students increase their international knowledge and skills through, for example, study abroad. Several universities, including Harvard, have announced plans to expand their study abroad programs and even make study abroad a degree requirement. Internationalization is transforming higher education, and increased participation in education abroad is an important part of the change (Harvard College Curricular Review Committee, 2004; Kauffman et al., 1992; Lambert, 1995).

Study Abroad

The term study abroad comprises a wide range of programs and experiences. These experiences include those in which students live in other countries for an extended period of time and attend classes at one of the universities in the host country (Bowman, 1987; Carlson, 1990; Hartle, 1968). When students study abroad, they receive academic credit; participate in classroom settings, seminars and lectures; visit with government officials, business professionals, and journalists; and have the opportunity to take field trips and travel independently (Cash, 1993; NAFSA, 2003; Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005).

History of Study Abroad

International travel as a vital element of higher education study started in the Middle Ages and has continued in some form into the present era of growth toward technological, economical, social and political interdependence (Bowman, 1987; Cash, 1993). In the colonial era, higher education abroad took place for the purpose of an education in religious studies rather than for temporary exchange purposes. As a result

those who studied abroad were abroad for longer than a year. In the 1600s higher education was limited to White men. When the schools in Europe were made available it was White men who went; not a diverse group of individuals who went abroad to train for careers as clergymen, doctors, and other professionals (Bowman, 1987).

In the 1800s, it was still primarily White men who studied in a foreign country. They studied in Vienna and Paris to obtain medical training. In addition, the rise of the German institution of higher education system lured other White men who pursued doctoral degrees in other disciplines (Bowman, 1978). This early connection to the European universities has continued to impact the choice of destinations of study abroad participants today (Commission on Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005). It is important to note that university education in the United States was not yet available to women and African Americans in the early nineteenth century (Carroll, 1996).

By the end of the nineteenth century, United States universities had gained a reputation that was competitive to the European universities. As a result, fewer White men traveled to Europe for educational reasons. The opportunity to study abroad in Europe was not an opportunity available to women in the United States because European universities had not started accepting females for study (Bowman, 1987). It was in the late 1800s that White women began to visit Europe for educational purposes. Professors generally led the trips and little classroom study was involved. Rather, the women visited museums, cathedrals and other historical sites. Even though White women began to participate in study abroad programs long after men began to participate, starting in the mid-1900s, they became the most frequent participant in

United States study abroad programs (Bowman, 1987). This trend persists even today (Open Doors, 2005).

Events of recent decades have helped to reaffirm and at the same time to modify the traditional international orientations of universities (Bowman, 1987; Harvard University Website; Oppen, 1986; Schoorman, 2000). The expectation now is that higher education should take the lead in providing people with direct experience to the processes of communication and interaction among countries.

In the early twentieth century, interest in interactions and encounters with other cultures increased. The notion was that if people of different cultures could get to know and understand one another on a personal level, these personal links would begin to transcend and transform the disagreements between nations that could lead to war. Essentially, cross-cultural personal contacts were seen as a way to avoid major conflict and establish world peace (Bowman, 1987; Oppen, et al., 1986). The Experiment in International Living, Youth for Understanding, and the American Field Service were some of the first agencies to put this notion into practice (Oppen, et al, 1986).

In the 1920s, the University of Delaware and Smith College were among the first institutions of higher learning to establish study abroad programs (Oppen, et al., 1990). The Institute for International Education (IIE) was established in 1919 to promote world peace and cultural understanding through cultural and educational exchange. Few colleges had programs in the early twentieth century and it was not until the 1950s and 1960s that a significant number of students were sent abroad through participation in

study abroad programs. These students were largely from private colleges and universities (Lambert, 1989). In the early 1960s, joint program planning and development began when study abroad consortia, such as Associated Colleges of the Midwest, the Great Lakes College Association and the University of California Education Abroad Program were established (Carroll, 1996; Kauffman, et al, 1992; Washington, 1998).

Benefits of Study Abroad

The benefits of study abroad are evident and well documented. In addition to the usual academic outcomes of improved foreign language proficiency, increased knowledge in one's discipline, and a broadened intellectual perspective, an educational experience abroad provides students with an international perspective—knowledge, attitudes and skills which presumably lead to a better educated citizenry and ultimately to improved international relations and global understanding (Hansel & Grove, 1986; Hudzig & Larsen, 2003; Kitsantas & Meyers, 2001). Developing an international perspective takes into account changes in perceptions of home and host cultures as well as changes in knowledge, affective responses, and behavior (Kauffmann, 1992). Results of qualitative research indicate that students develop an international perspective as a result of study abroad. Researchers at the University of Delaware conducted a study to determine whether students taking courses abroad, regardless of the nature of their particular program, acquire global awareness to a greater extent than those who enroll in similar courses on campus and whether, at the end of the session, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Faculty directors of programs that were

at least four weeks in length administered the surveys to students near the end of the programs. The programs represented a broad distribution across academic departments, courses and geographic locations. The total sample was nearly 2,300.

There were demographic differences between the students abroad and those on campus. The study abroad group was disproportionately female, contained fewer freshmen, and had a higher self-reported grade point average (GPA). The results indicate that students in the study abroad group were generally more cognizant than their peers at home of various national and cultural perspectives. Simply put, the students abroad were more apt to recognize that, “the whole world is not like the U.S.,” and “there are other cultures that exist very differently from our own,” as two students wrote as a response to the open-ended question on the survey instrument (Chieffo, 2001). In the category of personal growth and development the difference in mean responses was significant. Students abroad reported developing a greater appreciation for the arts than those on campus. With regard to communication and language skills, despite the fact that about the same number of students in both the abroad and on-campus groups were taking a foreign language course (approximately one-third), those abroad were more disposed to communicating in a foreign language and considered themselves more patient with people who do not speak English well. The category functional knowledge measured activities such as knowing how to make a telephone call abroad to listening to music sung in a language other than English. The findings in this category demonstrate that students who go abroad, even for as little as one month, are learning how to perform tasks associated with international travel, and they are engaging in activities to learn

more about their host site and host culture (for example learning more about geography, watching a non-American TV show, and becoming fluent in a foreign language). Based on the data yielded by this study, it was concluded that short-term programs, even as short as one month, are worthwhile educational endeavors that have significant self-perceived impacts on students' intellectual and personal lives (Chieffo, 2001).

Studying abroad allows students to experience education in a universal classroom. Sociology and social science study allows students to better understand the changes in self-perception they underwent while abroad and it integrates theoretical perspectives as participants are able to put theory into practice (Kitsantas and Meyers, 2001). Benefits include the development of life skills, including maturity and confidence, a global outlook, enhanced communication skills, cultural sensitivity and adaptability and access to networks offering employment opportunities (Kitsantas and Meyers, 2001).

Using a quasi experimental methodological approach, Kitsantas and Meyers (2001) studied the impact of study abroad programs on a student's cross-cultural awareness. Twenty-four students participated in the study; 13 who were enrolled in a study abroad program and the control group consisted of 11 students who were enrolled in a course at a southeastern university. Each group was given a pre and post test that measured cross cultural adaptability. The results showed that students studying abroad scored higher on all the cross cultural adaptability scales, indicating that a period of study abroad enhanced the students' cross cultural awareness.

Who Studies abroad?

The number of U.S. students studying abroad has doubled in less than a decade and tripled over the past 15 years. For the 2001-2002 school year, 160,920 students (a record high at the time) took classes overseas for academic credit (Open Doors, 2004). However, even with these gains, only a fraction of college students ever winds up in a classroom outside the United States. The study abroad participation rate is extremely low, especially since year after year 20 % or more of a quarter-million incoming freshmen surveyed indicate that they intend to study abroad during their academic career (NAFSA: Report of the Strategic Task Force on Education Abroad, 2003). Even when taking into account that the official figures do not include Americans who go abroad on their own to take classes without the involvement of their home institutions, students who study abroad total barely more than 1 % of the 8 million full-time and 5 million part-time undergraduates that attend the 3,400 accredited U.S. colleges and universities (NAFSA: Report of the Strategic Task Force on Education Abroad, 2003).

At the same time, the junior year abroad appears to be a thing of the past in that less than eight percent of study abroad participants actually engage in study for an entire academic year. In fact, more than 90 % of the U.S. college students that study abroad go for a semester or less. Some go for a few weeks. However, just over 40 % of study abroad participants are classified as juniors. Almost half of the Americans who study abroad go to Britain, Italy, Spain or France (Open Doors, 2005).

During the 2004-2005 academic year the majority of study abroad students were female, juniors, White and social science majors (Open Doors, 2005). Despite the

changing U.S. demographics and the overall increase in U.S. student study abroad, there is a less than 2 % participation increase for students of color when comparing these statistics with those of the 1993-1994 academic year (Open Doors, 2004).

Among the students who are not studying abroad are students of color; education, engineering and science majors; students with disabilities; (Commission on Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005; Open Doors, 2005) and from traditionally Black, Latino, and Native American institutions; (Commission on Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005). The graph, Figure 2, depicts the number of study abroad students over a 10-year period.

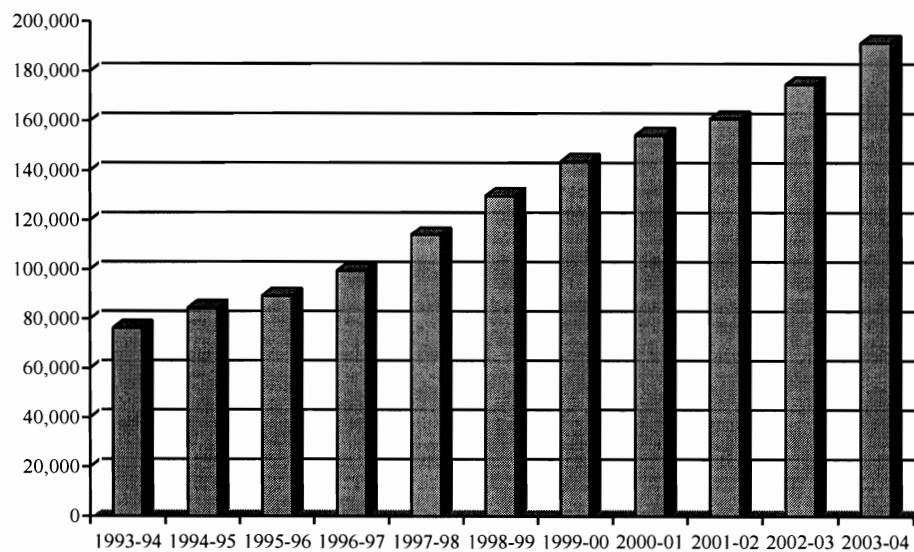


Figure 2: Number of U. S. Students Enrolled in Study Abroad Programs, 1993/94 -2003/04

Reasons Minorities do not Participate in Study Abroad

Participation in study abroad programs is beneficial but a large portion of the minority population does not participate. In most cases, the term “underrepresented,” instead of the word “minority,” is used to describe groups of students who have lower levels of participation (for the purposes of this study, in study abroad) than levels of enrollment in higher education (Van Der Meid, 2004). The terms underrepresented and minority are used interchangeably in this study. All of the racial/ethnic groups have lower representation in study abroad relative to the representation in higher education. The proportion of Asian Americans is very close, yet not quite equal, to the proportion of Asian Americans in higher education. Therefore, Asian Americans are considered part of the underrepresented group for this study.

In 1991, the Council on International Education Exchange (CIEE) reported on issues that relate to the underrepresentation of minorities, particularly, African Americans in study abroad programs. The CIEE (1991) identified 11 barriers that may present obstacles for minorities’ access to international opportunities. The 11 barriers include: (1) study abroad program structure; (2) language requirements; (3) length of study; (4) cost of program; (5) on-campus requirements; (6) marketing, which includes printed materials and promotional campaigns; (7) admission requirements; (8) lack of faculty support; (9) campus culture; (10) state legislature-mandated requirements; and (11) difficulty in transferring credits. There have been numerous research studies that have considered some of these factors as well as others to determine why minorities do not participate in study abroad programs at the rate of Whites.

Whether students participate in a study abroad program is associated with students' level of openness and their degree of tolerance (Bakalis and Joiner, 2004). To determine factors that influence students' participation in study abroad programs, researchers administered a questionnaire to an experimental and a control group. In this quasi experiment, the total sample size was 69 Australian students; 31 students who had participated in a study abroad program comprised the experimental group and 38 students who had not participated in a study abroad program comprised the control. Students with a high degree of openness and a high tolerance of ambiguity were more likely to participate in a study abroad program, whereas students revealing a low degree of openness and a low degree of tolerance were less likely to participate in a study abroad program. The study further revealed that financial considerations, missing family and friends, fear, lack of interest, work commitments, lack of knowledge, interruption to studies and language barrier were the most often reported reasons that students cited for not considering a study abroad program.

The results of an earlier study employing a larger sample coincide with the results in the Bakalis and Joiner study as reason minorities choose not to participate in study abroad programs. In their 1993 study, Hembroff and Russ defined minorities as African Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans and Asians or Pacific Islanders. In this cross-sectional design, the researchers surveyed 1,139 undergraduate students from Michigan State University. Students who had participated in study abroad and students who had not studied abroad were surveyed. Researchers analyzed the predictors race, socioeconomic status, previous travel experience, and GPA to determine whether they

are associated with students decision to study abroad. The results showed that African American students were significantly less likely to have visited a country outside the United States, than Whites and other students. The study further showed that African American students were less likely to have traveled in the state or in the nation. The researchers concluded that it would appear that perhaps the same factors that contribute to African American students being underrepresented in study abroad programs may be the same as those leading them to be less well traveled generally. Some differences in the participation rates between minority and White students are associated with economic issues, fear to travel to unknown areas, knowledge of study abroad programs, fear of discrimination, and anxieties about language difficulties (Hembroff & Russ, 1993).

The Michigan study also showed that attrition rates and choice of major, across racial or ethnic groups help explain why minorities are underrepresented in study abroad programs. Students are more likely to travel abroad during their sophomore or junior year and comparatively more minorities than Whites leave institutions of higher learning before earning their degree (American Council on Education, 2005). Further, African Americans are less represented in Arts and Letters majors and historically, these majors have represented a large portion of the study abroad population (Bowman, 1987; Cash, 1993).

Still, there are other factors that explain why students do not participate in study abroad programs. Employing a qualitative research design, Fels (1993) conducted a series of interviews with eight African Americans who were attending the California

State University at Los Angeles to identify if there are assumptions that might help account for their lack of participation in study abroad programs. An analysis of the data collected from the recorded interviews showed that African Americans assumed they would be treated differently than other racial groups, as objects of fear abroad, and that institutional efforts keep them ignorant of opportunities for study abroad (Fels, 1993).

The belief that institutional efforts keep African American students ignorant of study abroad efforts has been used as a variable in quantitative research designs to determine if it has an impact on whether African Americans participate in study abroad programs.

Keeping African Americans ignorant of opportunities for study abroad was operationalized as an independent variable, awareness, in a 1998 study conducted by Donald Washington. Using a majority white university and an HBCU, Washington sought to identify the attitudes and perceptions of African American undergraduates toward study abroad programs, in an effort to make recommendations that would increase their rate of participation. Washington conducted a descriptive study to determine if some of the factors previously identified by Hembroff and Russ; lack of faculty and staff encouragement provided by the university, limited finances, family and community discouragement, fear and awareness, had any impact on African American student participation based on their attendance at the HBCU or the majority university. The sample size was 616; 285 students from the majority university and 331 students from the HBCU (Washington, 1998).

The lack of awareness of study abroad programs and the lack of finances were the two main reasons African Americans do not participate in study abroad programs. The participants in Washington's study responded that awareness was the most significant barrier to participation in study abroad programs and this finding concurred with earlier research (King & Young; 1994). Forty-six percent of the participants indicated awareness about study abroad programs and services as the reason they did not participate in study abroad programs. Further, 83% of the students who participated in the study had little or no knowledge about study abroad programs and services offered on their campus. There was a statistically significant difference ($p=.000$) regarding awareness for the majority institution and the HBCU. Awareness as a reason for not studying abroad was reported more as an issue by participants at the HBCU than participants at the majority institution (Washington, 1998).

Fourteen percent of the students in the study identified finances as a barrier to their participation in a study abroad program. There was a statistically significant difference ($p=.001$) regarding finances for the majority institution and the HBCU. Finances as a reason for not participating in study abroad was more prevalent at the HBCU than at the majority institution (Washington, 1998).

Faculty, family and fear were the other factors assessed in the study. Neither students at the majority university or the HBCU believed that faculty or fear had any impact on their decision not to participate in study abroad programs. Only three percent of the participants indicated that family was a barrier to their participation in study

abroad programs. There was no statistically significant difference between the majority university and the HBCU (Washington, 1998).

In 1990, a survey was conducted at Oregon State University to obtain information about the undergraduate students' beliefs and perceptions on studying abroad. The majority of the undergraduate students identified issues such as expenses, learning a foreign language, a lack of interest in studying abroad, living in a different culture, and leaving parents as reasons contributing to their lack of participation in study abroad. However, the major barrier associated with a lack of participation among undergraduate students, in particular, with members of underrepresented groups (males and minorities), was a lack of knowledge or awareness about study abroad program opportunities. Fewer than 20 % of the students indicated that they had received information from faculty, in a class, a display on campus, or had visited the International Education Office (King & Young, 1994).

Asian Americans are members of a minority group but their participation rate in study abroad programs is more proportional to the undergraduate enrollment rate than other minority groups (Chronicle of Higher Education). Van Der Meid (2004) conducted a study to determine why Asian Americans do not participate in study abroad programs. For purposes of the study, Asian Americans referred to those students raised primarily in the United States who self-identify as Asian American. Methodology for the study included interviews conducted with Asian Americans who had studied abroad and those who had not, and web-based questionnaires for Asian American students enrolled in U.S. academic institutions. The sample for the questionnaire was 153. There are factors

that influence Asian American students' decisions to study abroad that are unique to this group (Van Der Meid, 2004). To illustrate the point, we may look at three of the factors that hamper African Americans from studying abroad: Financial concerns, university attrition rates and fear of discrimination (Bakalis & Joiner, 2004; Carroll, 1996; Hembroff & Russ, 1993; Washington, 1998). Financial concerns were important to the Asian Americans that had not participated in a study abroad program. Asian Americans have the highest retention rates of all ethnic groups in both two-year and four-year academic institutions (Van Der Meid, 2004). Therefore, the attrition rate is not a significant reason as to why Asian Americans do not study abroad. Discrimination, however, was a factor for the study abroad group that reported racism and challenges while studying abroad (Van Der Meid, 2004).

Responding to the 2001 Open Doors report about the low number of Hispanics in U.S. colleges and universities who participate in study abroad, Millington (2002) stated that there are several factors that explain the numbers. Lack of funds, familial and academic responsibilities at home and lack of motivation are the reasons most often discussed. However, general perceptions of Hispanics studying abroad and the preservation of ethnic identity are also reasons that Hispanics do not study abroad even though they are seldom acknowledged (Millington, 2002).

Scott and McMahon (1998) employed a longitudinal design to study to what degree students of color were participating in study abroad. To better understand the issue, the researchers looked at characteristics and preparation of minority participants as they relate to their academic performance. Based on a sample of 1600 students in the

University of California Education Abroad Program over a five-year period, researchers sought to describe student characteristics associated with participation in study abroad, paying particular attention to diversity issues. Scott and McMahon (1998) explored factors associated with academic performance abroad and investigated minimum academic qualifications associated with academic success in the study abroad program. The findings of the study show distinct variations in the demographic characteristics of students participating in the program and that students' pre-departure academic performance and foreign language proficiency are positively correlated to academic performance abroad. In other words, the study confirmed the use of GPA as a measure of qualification for participation in the University of California's study abroad program. Further, study abroad programs where the instruction was in a language other than English, prior language ability and level of proficiency regarding another language is positively correlated with academic achievement abroad. Subsequently, this finding confirms the University of California's emphasis on language preparation prior to departure.

However, a study directed towards education professionals who serve low-income and first-generation college students found that language was not a barrier to participation in study abroad. Rather, cost and lack of information were the two main reasons that prevent low-income and first-generation, many of whom are minority students from studying abroad (Norfles, 2003). The study was conducted to determine what barriers prevent students from low-income families and first generation college students from participating in study abroad opportunities. Rather than survey the

students, Norfles surveyed the program directors to ascertain their perceptions about why their students do not participate in study abroad programs. By using this program that has as its direct beneficiaries, low-income and first generation college students, the researcher controlled for income and parental educational background. A web-based questionnaire was used to collect the data. The survey was distributed via e-mail to 995 participants (Norfles).

Stoop's 1990 research also considered income as well as socioeconomic background when studying the reasons minorities do not participate in study abroad programs. Most of the reasons minorities do not participate are related to the history of social and economic discrimination that members of minority groups have endured in the United States (Stoop, 1990). The cost of study abroad, the fact that many minority and college students are first generation, and that most minority students are from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are reasons that help explain the rate of minority participation in study abroad (Stoop, 1990). First, the average cost of study abroad can easily double that of normal costs for study at the home institution and the cost may be prohibitive. Second, as first generation college students, they may not be familiar with many of the curricular offerings available to them. The third reason provided was that students from lower economic backgrounds consider college as a direct aid to better employment opportunities. Even when aware of study abroad programs, they may not perceive the career applicability of such an extra experience (Stoop, 1990).

Theoretical Framework

The conceptual framework guides the design of a study and enables the reader to follow logically the underlying theoretical structure of the study. Systems theory will provide the underpinnings of this study. A system can be defined as a collection of interrelated parts that work together by way of some driving process. This approach can be thought of as an assembly line, one that operates as “the product of a system, influenced by and influencing the environment in which it operates” (Birkland, 2001). In terms of functionality, the system receives inputs and generates outputs. Using systems theory, we may investigate to determine what the universities are doing to address the disparity in the participation rates of underrepresented racial groups in study abroad programs.

The five basic characteristics of systems theory are: 1) Each part of an organization can only be understood in terms of relation to the other parts of the organization; 2) The parts of the organization including how they relate to the other parts, are important in the way they contribute to other parts of the organization; 3) Organizations may be thought of as biological organisms with needs or goals that are superordinate to and separate from the needs, purposes and goals of individual parts or members; 4) The needs and goals of the organization may be conceived through maintenance of order or in terms of purposive evolution or change; and 5) Organizational activity of any significance is understandable in terms of its relation to the external environment, which provides the resources and conditions on which the organization depends for its survival or the realization of its purposes (Harmon, 1986).

Inputs are issues, pressures, and information including the key actor's responses in the system and can include public opinion, media coverage, political election results and political communication. Inputs can be interpreted as the demands placed on the system to take some action against a problem. Conversely, outputs are the decision on whether or not to do proceed. Examples of outputs in the systems model include laws, regulations, and decisions (Birkland, 2001). The issue is the disparity in the number of minority study abroad participants. This research seeks to explore the activities and procedures the universities are implementing and institutional factors that influence the number of students studying abroad.

When applying systems theory to public administration, systems theory can be applied as a model, with four fundamental components of the policy environment. These include the structural, social, political and economic environments in which public policy takes place (Birkland, 2001). The structural environment is comprised of the executive, legislative and judicial branches of the government; the federal system's division of labor between the federal and state governments; and the state's delegation of duties and powers to local governments (Birkland, 2001). Within this level, these governing bodies create, interpret and enforce public policy across all levels of government. The social environment entails the demographic changes of the population and its social structure (Birkland, 2001). The economic environment comprises factors such as distribution of wealth in a society, the nature and distribution of capital, size and composition of labor including materials (Birkland, 2001). The final aspect of the environment is referred to as the political environment (Birkland, 2001).

The public colleges and universities in the United States are part of the U.S. higher education system as their operations are influenced by federal and state policies. Further, since each is

governed by its own local board or authority there is an hierarchal system in which each one operates.

The systems approach will not focus on policy formulation and decision making phase. The systems approach takes into consideration all aspects of the policy environment including the structural, social, political and economic system in which policy making takes place.

Summary

Real barriers to study abroad do exist (Van Der Meid, 2004; Bakalis & Joiner, 2004; Norfles, 2003; Scott & McMahon, 1998; Washington, 1998; King & Young; 1994; Hembroff. & Russ; 1993; Fels, 1993; Stoop, 1990). Studies to date have researched the reasons African Americans and Asian Americans do not participate in study abroad but there seems to limited study on Hispanics and none on Native Americans as to why they do not participate in study abroad. The continuance of institutional assumptions and individual students with misinformed perceptions about study abroad limit the success of overcoming any of the barriers (Slind). The barriers that students perceive are very real to them even if they do not exist institutionally. In order to eliminate the barriers, both institutional and individual, both real and perceived the barriers have to be identified on the college and university campuses (Slind).

College and university personnel must promote strategies that encourage study abroad across all disciplines. They must involve the faculty, counter financial disincentives, and create new study abroad models and diverse study abroad options that recognize the changing demographics of higher education and make study abroad more accessible to the broadest possible spectrum of students. We must go beyond the models

and incentives that applied to a time when study abroad was slated for the elite. Higher education will never be truly democratized until all students can access the opportunity to build necessary skills through study abroad (Report of the Strategic Task Force on Education Abroad, 2003).

CHAPTER III

Methodology

The main purpose of this study is to describe the activities that university study abroad offices undertake in promoting study abroad programs and investigate the influence selected factors have on the overall number and the number of minority students participating in study abroad. Using survey research the investigator sought to identify what an effective study abroad program looks like with regard to the participation of students overall and particularly from underrepresented racial groups in United States colleges and universities. Study abroad constitutes a university-sponsored program in which students live in another country for an extended period, attend classes, participate in lectures and seminars, and have the opportunity to take field trips independently for academic credit (Cash, 1993; Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program; NAFSA Strategic Task Force on Study Abroad, 2003; 2005).

A review of the literature provided valuable information that was used in the development of the questionnaire that was used in this research. First, the literature provided information on the participation of minority students in study abroad programs. Since the inception of study abroad in the United States, the typical study abroad participant has not changed. More than 84, 000 U.S. undergraduate students participated

in study abroad programs in 1995 (Open Doors, 2004). However, the majority of the students who participated represented a narrow spectrum of the population. They were mainly White, females, with fewer males and members of minority groups. This trend has persisted since the inception of study abroad programs in this country. Inasmuch, males and members of racial minority groups would be considered underrepresented groups. Nearly 65% of those participating in study abroad in 2003-04 were female and approximately 35% were male (Open Doors, 2005; Commission on Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005). In 2002, Hispanics made up 10 % of U.S. postsecondary enrollments. Yet, they represented only 5.3 % of the study abroad population. During this same period, African Americans made up 11% of postsecondary enrollments but only 3.5 % of the study abroad population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2003; Open Doors, 2004). The following year, the percentage of students from the two largest racial minority groups in the U.S., Hispanics and African Americans actually decreased. In the 2003-04 academic year, 191,321 U.S. students studied abroad. The overwhelming majority, 83.7%, of the study abroad participants was White. The remaining 16.3% constitutes students of color or students from racially underrepresented groups; 6.1 % was Asian American, 5% was Hispanic, 3.4 % was African American, 0.5% was Native American, and 1.3% multiracial (Open Doors, 2004).

While there are other groups that fit the definition of underrepresented in study abroad, this study will focus on the significant disparity of the U.S. study abroad participation rates of racial minorities. Essentially, for purposes of this research, racial minorities or students of color constitute the underrepresented.

Second, the literature indicates that commitment to internationalization, organizational framework and availability of resources are necessary and critical to the success of any internationalization effort (Schoorman, 2000). Study abroad is a major means of internationalization (Cash, 1993; Hudzig & Larsen, 2003; Kauffmann, et al., 1992). Commitment should be a fundamental component of the mission statement (Schoorman, 2000) or other guiding documents. Equally important is the role leadership plays in successful attempts to internationalize the campus and the curriculum. The leadership role of several key senior administrators, specifically, the university president, provost or vice president for Academic Affairs, and deans are seen as critical to the success of internationalization efforts. Just as the organizational framework is important to the internationalization process, resources are equally important. Both, financial and human resources are paramount for internationalization. Some educators note that funding is the biggest obstacle to the process (Hartle, 1968; Schoorman, 2000).

Next, the researcher is most interested in the awareness factor that may help explain why minority students do not participate in study abroad. The literature reveals that Washington (1998) determined awareness of study abroad programs was the main reason African Americans do not participate in study abroad programs. Fels (1993) reported that African Americans feel institutional efforts keep them ignorant of study abroad opportunities. Norfles (2003) also determined that lack of information on study abroad was one of the main reasons low-income and first generation college students do not participate in study abroad. The results of research conducted by Hembroff and Russ (1993) also points to knowledge of study abroad programs as one of the reasons

minorities do not participate in study abroad programs. The other factors, such as, fear, finances, family, which help to explain why minorities fail to engage in study abroad appear to be somewhat secondary. If students are not even aware of the opportunity to engage in study abroad they are not concerned about how they will be treated abroad, what their family members think or even how much it costs. Subsequently, the researcher is focusing on recruitment activities intended to promote the study abroad program.

After a review of the literature was completed, a questionnaire was developed in an effort to collect data. The questions focused on commitment to internationalization of the curriculum and campus and to study abroad, availability of resources, activities aimed at making students aware of study abroad programs, and perceptions regarding obstacles to increasing participation in study abroad programs. The research focused on the policies, procedures, and strategies implemented allowing us to comprehensively describe the activities and efforts study abroad office personnel employ in American higher education.

Research Questions

The following questions were developed from a review of the literature on study abroad programs:

Research Question #1. This research will examine whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and proportion of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 1.1: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not

influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 1.2: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is in the mission statement and study abroad in the strategic plan.

H₀ 1.3: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀ 1.4: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's incoming freshmen class.

H₀ 1.5: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #2. This research will examine whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and proportion of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 2.1: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 2.2: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is in the mission statement and study abroad in the strategic plan.

H₀ 2.3: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀ 2.4: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's incoming freshmen class.

H₀ 2.5: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving

federal financial aid.

Research Question #3. This research will examine whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and proportion of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 3.1: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 3.2: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is in the mission statement and study abroad in the strategic plan.

H₀ 3.3: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀ 3.4: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's incoming freshmen class.

H₀ 3.5: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #4. This research will examine whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected recruitment activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs.

H₀ 4.1: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad program alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀ 4.2: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.

- H₀4.3: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by university study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.4: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad alumni at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.5: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.6: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.7: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.8: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity.
- Research Question #5. This research will examine whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected recruitment activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs.
- H₀5.1: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad program alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.2: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.3: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by university study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

- H₀5.4: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad alumni at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.5: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.6: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.7: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.8: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity.

Description of the Population

To explore what policies, procedures and practices the study abroad program offices implement at the Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities, the study abroad directors/administrators were contacted to provide data about their respective programs. Using the Carnegie Classifications for 2000, the doctoral/research extensive universities offer a frame of comparable universities. Doctoral/research extensive universities offer a wide range of baccalaureate programs, and they are committed to graduate education through the doctorate (Carnegie Foundation). Doctoral/research extensive universities awarded 50 or more doctoral degrees per year

across at least 15 disciplines. Each category of the Carnegie classification comprises institutions of varying size, but institutions in the two doctorate-granting categories tend to be much larger than others, with doctoral/research extensive universities—averaging about 20,069 students in the 2003-04 school year (Carnegie Foundation).

Doctoral/research intensive universities—averaging about 10,200 students. Although doctoral/research universities make up only 7 % of the institutional universe, they accounted for nearly 30 % of higher education enrollment in Fall 1998. Research universities produced half of all bachelor's graduates with liberal arts majors. An examination of higher education institutions shows that research institutions send the largest number of U.S. students abroad. This is not surprising since research institutions typically have higher overall enrollments than other four-year institutions (Open Doors, 2005; Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Program, 2005). Carnegie doctoral/research extensive universities tend to have larger enrollments than the doctoral research/intensive universities.

There are 102 public universities classified as doctoral/research extensive universities and forty-six of the fifty states have at least one public doctoral/research extensive university. Eight public doctoral/research extensive universities are located in California, followed by six in Texas, five each in New York and Ohio, four each in Florida, Illinois, Michigan and Virginia, and three each in Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, and Pennsylvania. Sixteen states have two public doctoral/research extensive universities and 18 states have one public doctoral/research extensive university. Four states, Alaska, North Dakota, South Dakota and Montana do not have a

public doctoral/research extensive university. The map at figure 3 shows the number of public doctoral/research extensive universities per state. The table at Appendix A lists the name of each of the Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities by state.

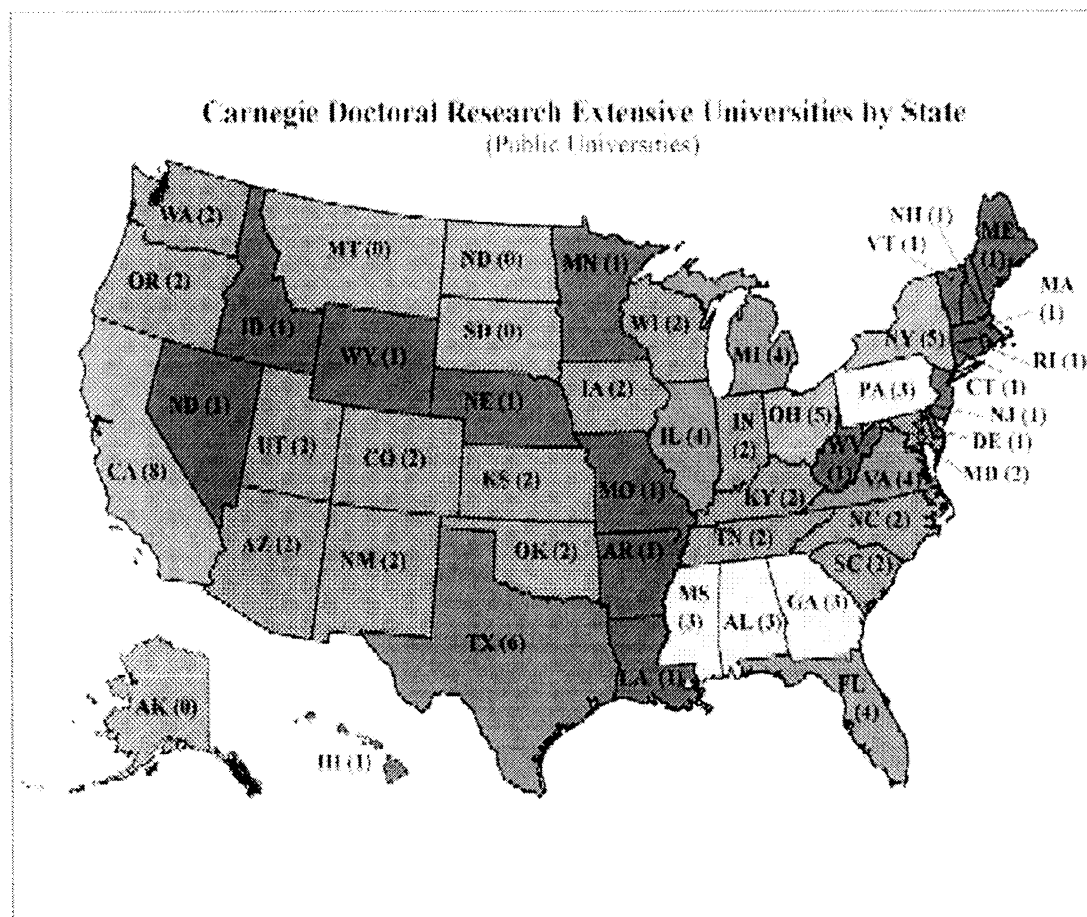


Figure 3: Carnegie Public Doctoral/Research Extensive Universities per State

There are 102 universities identified as Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. City University of New York Graduate Center, located in New York is one of the Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. As the name

indicates, it is a graduate center and this study will focus on study abroad with regard to undergraduate students. Further, the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Act is focusing on increasing the number of undergraduates overall and the number of undergraduate students from underrepresented groups who participate in study abroad. Therefore, the study population was the 101 Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities that serve undergraduates.

Research Design

This was an exploratory, descriptive study that used survey research in conducting a program assessment of the study abroad program at each of the Carnegie 101 public doctoral/research extensive universities. The general design of the study reflects Gays' description of survey research. Data were collected through a questionnaire and the researcher had no control over what is, only measurement of what already existed. Questions/methods oriented evaluation approaches, sometimes referred to as quasi-evaluation studies address specified questions, answers which may be sufficient to assess a program's merit and worth and/or use some preferred method. (Stufflebeam, 2000).

Data were collected through a questionnaire that contained closed-ended measures, and partially closed-ended observations by the respondents; and the researcher had no control over what is, only measurement of what already existed. The program or aspects of the program are viewed as they are occurring or as they occurred in the past (Stufflebeam, 2000). The data were gathered to generalize the characteristics of a

specified population. In addition to being descriptive, surveys can also be used to explore relationships between variables and in an explanatory manner (Gay, 2003).

Survey Instrumentation

The questionnaire was sent to appropriate personnel as identified by the study abroad director/administrator, or international education director at each of the 101 Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. The questionnaire consisted of twenty-four items. The response structure for the items is eighteen closed-ended and six partially closed-ended items. The items were developed to seek the following information on the study abroad program office characteristics and procedures: 1) general information about the institutions' study abroad program and the study abroad program office such as eligibility of participants, its reporting unit, number of employees and guiding documents such as mission statement, strategic plan, and institutional growth plans, 2) promotions by the Study Abroad Program Office to make students aware of study abroad programs, 3) study abroad participants' demographic data, specifically race or ethnicity, and 4) budgetary information for the institution and the study abroad program office. The content of the survey questions was developed from information identified in the literature by (National Task Force on Education Abroad, 1990; Shoorman, 2000) as being instrumental in an university's internationalization efforts. The questions designed to collect data about promotion of the study abroad programs were developed as a result of the literature review as awareness was identified as a factor contributing to low participation by underrepresented groups in study abroad programs (Anderson, 2004; Hembroff & Russ, 1993; King & Young, 1994; Stoop, 1988;

Washington, 1998). Further, in formulating the questions concerning awareness of study abroad programs, the researcher engaged in conversations with study abroad program personnel from three different universities to determine general characteristics of study abroad programs and procedures for promoting study abroad programs.

The number of study abroad participants represents the outcome variable. Regarding racial categories the U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau uses the following minimal reporting categories for race and ethnicity in federal government publications:

- 1) White: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa.
- 2) Black or African American: A person having origins in any of the black racial groups of Africa. Includes Haitians and Bahamians.
- 3) Hispanic or Latino: A person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race.
- 4) Asian: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, South Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand and Vietnam.
- 5) Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands.
- 6) American Indian or Alaskan Native: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America).
- 7) More than one race: Includes any combination of more than one race and not Hispanic or Latino.

The racial classifications and descriptions used on the questionnaire primarily coincide with the Census Bureau categories with one exception. Two categories, Asian and Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, have been merged to form one category. The U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) displays enrollment data for postsecondary institutions of higher education. When racial

demographic data is reported to the NCES by the respective institutions, Asians and Pacific Islanders comprise only one category. Therefore, in order to make accurate comparisons and analyses this study will also consider Asian and Native Hawaii or other Pacific Islander as one racial category.

The questionnaire was field-tested by three different study abroad directors. The three changes that were made as a result of the field-test were: 1) The investigator changed study abroad tour to study abroad program. The field-tester remarked that “study abroad tour” denotes a short trip abroad, led by a faculty member and that the term “study abroad program” is broader and it encompasses the study abroad tour; 2) Question number 2 was expanded to account for the fact that at some institutions, there may be different GPA requirements for semester long programs and shorter summer programs. 3) The questionnaire sought racial and demographic data for 2005-06 study abroad participants and one of the field-testers noted that this data was not maintained in the study abroad office and it would be time-consuming to gather. Instead an estimate was offered. To ease the burden on the respondents and increase the response rate to this data item, the statement “If data regarding the race of study abroad participants is not collected, please provide your best estimate” was added to the instructions in data item #23. Data item #24 asked if the figures reported in data item #23 are estimated.

Internal Validity and Methodology

To evaluate the validity of the methodology used in this study, a review of internal external and validity implications was conducted. There are several threats to the internal validity of a descriptive study (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004). The threats to

any study are the location, instrumentation, instrument decay, mortality, and the attitudes of the participants (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004).

Location is the particular site for data collection, or where an intervention is implemented, and may create alternative explanations for results (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004). This survey was administered to study abroad directors and directors of international education at Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. The survey was administered via web and via telephone. With the availability of remote access, the respondents who participated via web could choose when and where to complete the survey. For respondents who were contacted via telephone, their natural office setting.

Instrumentation and instrument decay can create problems if the nature of the instrument is changed. This is usually referred to as instrument decay (Creswell, 2002). For this study, instrument decay issues were minimized because the instrument used in this study was developed and validated by field-testing. The issues of data collector characteristics and data collector bias were reduced because one instrument was administered by one person and analyzed with the Statistical Package for the Social Science Software. The researcher, however, was mindful that when the respondents were contacted via telephone to complete the survey the intent of the question about the budget could be explained. Specifically, respondents that asked for clarification were able to get this clarification immediately. Whereas, participants that responded via web did not have the benefit of immediate clarification. Only one web respondent contacted the researcher to have the question explained. When the data were cleaned the

researcher realized there were extreme answers and the data were not reliable, as the data item obviously did not have the same meaning for each respondent.

Mortality will occur, no matter how carefully the participants are selected. It is common to lose some participants as the study progresses. For one reason or another subjects may drop out of a study especially if it extends over a period of time (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004). The data for this study were collected on a one time only basis from study abroad and international education directors, the loss of participants was limited and the threat of mortality was reduced.

The way the participants view a study and their participation can create a threat to internal validity (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004). To eliminate the threat of perceptions of the participants on this study, they were assured that their participation was voluntary and confidential. The purpose of the study was shared with both the web respondents and the telephone respondents. In an effort to gain their trust, participants were informed that the results of the study would be available for their review.

External Validity and Methodology

One purpose of research is to obtain findings that generalize beyond the specific group identified in the study (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004). The extent to which the study can generalize the results determines the external validity of the study. The generalizability of this study is limited to Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities who participated in this study. However, the study could be replicated using other universities as the population.

Data Collection and Data Collection Procedures

The VCU Office of Research and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) granted permission to conduct this study as it qualifies with an exempt, category 2 status. The IRB number assigned to this study is IRB #HM10527. The IRB application was submitted on September 7, 2006 and approved on October 16, 2006. As changes were made to the survey instrument, the Change in Research Submission Form and the survey instrument were submitted to IRB and approved on January 31, 2007.

The researcher used a questionnaire to collect the data as open-ended and partially-closed questions are combined on the survey. The data were collected via web and/or telephone survey. Fifty-three respondents or 65% participated via web. Twenty-nine respondents or 35 % were participated via telephone. The initial response rate was 40%. To increase the response rate and to investigate the possibility of nonresponse bias, the researcher telephoned the universities that did not respond. Thirteen additional participants responded via web after the researcher telephoned and 29 completed the survey over the telephone. An 80% response rate is considered excellent for a web-based survey (Tuten et al, 2002).

Survey research was used to collect data from the 101 Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. There was no need to draw a sample; rather, a census was conducted because the population is so small. To collect the needed data, the investigator surveyed the study abroad directors/administrators or directors of international education responsible for the program at the 101 Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. In this study it was necessary to survey the

highest-ranking person in selected universities who had detailed knowledge and direct administrative responsibilities for the conduct or coordination and integration of study abroad programs. Most U.S. universities have increased their international involvement and connections and these responsibilities are being handled in various ways administratively (Dillman, 2000; Schoorman, 2000). The task of coordination has been assigned to people with different titles at different levels such as, provost, vice-president, dean, assistant dean, director or coordinator (Shoorman, 2000). Therefore, the investigator examined the official web sites of the 101 Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities to ascertain the name, telephone number and e-mail address of each study abroad director/administrator. When conducting the Internet search, the researcher sought the name of the director of study abroad at each of the universities. If the director or assistant director of study abroad or education abroad was not listed, the researcher sought the name of the director or assistant director of international programs/services/education. The researcher also gained access to the Institute of International Education (IIE) membership directory to ascertain the name of the study abroad director or the director of international education at each of the 101 Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. The names international education gathered from the website were compared to the names gathered from the IIE membership directory in an effort to have the most recent contact information. There were four instances where the name of the study abroad director or assistant director could not be identified. In these cases, the researcher called the university study abroad offices to ascertain the names and e-mail addresses of the appropriate respondent. Both

telephone numbers and e-mail addresses were sought because a combination of telephone phone calls and e-mails were used to contact the study abroad directors/administrators or other individuals identified as a result of the Internet search and the III membership directory.

The purpose of the initial contact was to explain the study and alert the study population that the survey would be coming, to determine the specific name and contact information (e-mail address and telephone number) of the appropriate respondent to answer questions about the program on his or her campus and to whom the questionnaire should be sent. The initial contact was via e-mail. The researcher sent personalized e-mails to the study population in three separate batches on February 2, 3 and 4, 2007. Thirty-two responses resulted from the initial e-mail; seven individuals replied with the name of another individual deemed more appropriate to respond to the survey, 23 individuals replied that they were indeed the appropriate person to respond, and two e-mails were returned as undeliverable. The researcher called the university study abroad office at the two universities to ascertain the name and e-mail address of the appropriate persons to contact.

The next contact was via e-mail as well. On February 8, 2007, a cover letter that explained the research objectives along with a hyperlink to the survey was e-mailed to the persons identified as the appropriate respondents to complete the questionnaire.

To better ensure a high response rate, additional contacts were needed. An additional contact consisted of an e-mail reminder to individuals who had not returned the questionnaire within 10 days of the mailing date. The reminder e-mail was sent on

February 20, 2007. Individuals who did not complete and return the questionnaire after the reminder e-mail was sent were contacted via telephone in an effort to complete the questionnaire. The researcher entered into Inquisite the telephone respondents' answers to the questionnaire items.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

A survey instrument was developed and field tests conducted for the purposes of validation. The survey was administered to a total of 82 study abroad or international education directors at 101 Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. The data were collected at one point in time. The survey was the most appropriate research instrument to be used for this study because of the desire to collect data from study abroad and international education directors from all across the United States. Forty-six of the fifty states have at least one Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive university.

Once the data collection process was complete, the data from the web-based surveys were downloaded from Inquisite to SPSS, where they were checked and cleaned. Data obtained as a result of the telephone survey process were entered into Inquisite as the telephone survey was being conducted so this data became part of the dataset. Using SPSS, the survey questions were converted to a set of variables. Each variable was coded when appropriate and the data associated with these variables were analyzed.

Measurement of Study Variables

The following section describes the measures that were used in the study beginning with the dependent variables.

Dependent Variables

The proportion of all students undergraduate students studying abroad, the proportion of the minority student population studying abroad and the proportion of the nonminority student population studying abroad serve as the three dependent variables for the study.

The proportion of all students abroad. The Proportion of all students abroad was calculated from data accessed from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)' IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator for the 2005 school year, and the Study Abroad Office Survey. The researcher divided the total number of students studying abroad (data gathered from the Study Abroad Office Survey) by the total number of undergraduate students at the university (data gathered from IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator). This proportion was then multiplied by 1000 so the dependent variable is the number of students studying per 1000. In the first research question, the proportion of all students abroad was used as a continuous variable for entry into the regression models. In the fourth research question, the proportion of all students studying abroad was used as a test variable in the independent samples t tests.

The proportion of the minority student population studying abroad. The proportion of the minority student population studying abroad was calculated from data

accessed from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)' IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator for the 2005 school year. The researcher divided the total number of minority students studying abroad (data gathered from the Study Abroad Office Survey) by the total number of minority undergraduate students at the university (data gathered from IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator). This proportion was then multiplied by 1000 so the dependent variable is the number of minority students studying abroad per 1000. In the second research question, the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad was used as a continuous variable for entry into the regression models. In the fifth research question the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad was used as the test variable in the independent samples t tests.

The proportion of the nonminority student population studying abroad. The proportion of the nonminority student population studying abroad was calculated from data accessed from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)' IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator for the 2005 school year. The researcher divided the total number of nonminority students studying abroad (data gathered from the Study Abroad Office Survey) by the total number of nonminority undergraduate students at the university (data gathered from IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator). This proportion was then multiplied by 1000 so the dependent variable is the number of nonminority students studying abroad per 1000. In the third research question, the proportion of the

nonminority student population studying abroad was used as a continuous variable for entry into the regression model.

Independent Variables

The predictors, commitment to study abroad, proportion of staff and student workers, and awareness were selected for this current exploratory study are a result of the literature review. The other selected variables: endowment, financial aid and SAT/ACT scores are predictors typically used in higher education.

Commitment to internationalization of the campus and curriculum and study abroad. Commitment to internationalization and study abroad was conceptualized as the mentioning of internationalization of the campus and curriculum in the administrative unit's mission statement and study abroad in the strategic plan. Mission statements are typically broad visions of what an organization or organizational unit wants to achieve. Strategic plans tend to be more narrowly focused and usually delineates objectives and strategies and assigns responsibility for achieving the goals and objectives. The researcher gathered this data from the Study Abroad Office Survey. To create an optimal distribution and enhance interpretation of the variable, it was collapsed into two categories and coded as follows for entry into the regression models for the first three research questions: 0 = no mission statement, no strategic plan or do not know if there is a mission statement or strategic plan, or the mission statement does not mention internationalization and the strategic plan does not mention study abroad; 1 = the mission plan mentions internationalization and the strategic plan mentions study

abroad, or both the mission statement and the strategic plan mention internationalization and study abroad.

Staff and student workers. Staff and student workers represent the proportion of staff and student worker positions employed in the university's study abroad office. The researcher gathered this data from the responses to the Study Abroad Office Survey. The researcher divided the total number of staff and student workers by the total number of undergraduate students (minus the number of nonresident aliens) at the university (data gathered from IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator). This percentage was standardized by multiplying by 1000, resulting in the proportion of study abroad office staff and student workers. In each of the first three research questions, staff and student workers was used as a continuous variable for entry into the regression models. The researcher combined the total number of full-time and part-time classified positions and the number of student worker positions. This number may not be equivalent to the number of full-time equivalents (FTEs) because the survey instrument did not request the data in that form. The researcher assumed that each respondent understood the question in the same manner. Full and part-time faculty positions are not considered in this variable because over 80 % of participants indicated that there were no full or part-time faculty positions in the respective study abroad offices.

Endowment. Endowment is the funds or property donated to the institution as a source of income. The total endowment for the university at the end of the 2004 school year was obtained from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)' IPEDS

Peer Analysis System. The researcher calculated the percentage of endowment to total student enrollment by dividing the amount of the endowment by the total number of undergraduate enrolled at the university (data gathered from IPEDS Peer Analysis System and Colleges Opportunities Online Locator) for the endowment per student ratio. In each of the first three research questions, endowment was used as a continuous variable for entry into the regression models.

Financial Aid. Financial aid is the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid. The percentage of the university's student's receiving federal aid for the 2004 school year was obtained from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)' IPEDS Peer Analysis System. Receipt of financial aid is an indirect measure of income. In each of the first three research questions, financial aid was used as a continuous variable for entry into the regression models.

SAT/ACT Scores. The SAT/ACT scores are the average scores for the university's freshmen students scoring in the 75th percentile on the tests. SAT/ACT scores are a measure of student achievement for freshmen entering the university. From IPEDS the researcher gathered the SAT and ACT scores. IPEDS reports give the average SAT verbal score at the 75th percentile and the average SAT math score at the 75th percentile. The researcher combined the verbal score and the math score for a composite SAT score. The SAT and the ACT come for different distributions and are measured on different scales. The SAT scores and the ACT scores were converted to Z scores so the researcher could equate them. The Z score for the SAT was used unless it was missing, then the Z score for the ACT was used. The researcher was comfortable

with substituting the missing Z score for the ACT because of the Pearson correlation value yielded for these tests ($r=.9$). In each of the first three research questions, SAT score was used as a continuous variable for entry into the regression models.

Awareness. Awareness refers to the recruitment activities implemented by university study abroad office personnel to promote the study abroad program and recruit students for the program. The researcher gathered this data from the responses to the Study Abroad Office Survey. The following 11 activities constitute the variable awareness: 1) classroom presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff, 2) classroom presentations by study abroad program alumni, 3) outreach to students in campus housing, 4) distribute/post fliers, 5) sponsoring a table or booth at campus fairs or festivals, 6) presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings, 7) presentations by study abroad program alumni at department faculty meetings, 8) presentations by study abroad faculty/staff at student club meetings, 9) presentations by study abroad program alumni at student club meetings, 10) e-mails from the study abroad office to the entire student population, and 11) a permanent link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website.

There was no variability in the responses for the following three activities: 1) classroom presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff, 2) distribute/post fliers, and 3) sponsoring a table or booth at campus fairs or festivals. Essentially, nearly all respondents engaged in these activities and no values for the independent samples t tests were yielded. Therefore, the remaining eight activities were used as independent variables in the independent samples t-tests for Research Questions #4 and #5.

Data Analysis Approach

Descriptive statistics. Prior to regression analysis, descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, percentages, and minimum and maximum values were computed for all the variables to describe the sample, assess normality, and evaluate adequacy of category and cell size frequencies for analysis. All statistical analyses were executed using SPSS software version 15.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). Relationships between the abovementioned variables were demonstrated through data analysis. Descriptive statistics (mean \pm SD and percentages) were used to describe characteristics for the total population. Measures of central tendency were used for the clustering of responses. A frequency distribution was used to display the univariate analysis. The purpose of the frequency distribution was to illustrate “how often each response (a value) was given by the respondent to each item (a variable)” (Nardi, 2002, p. 116). Frequencies were run on all variables to detect coding errors.

The standard deviation was calculated to indicate “the average variation of all the values from the mean” (Nardi, 2002, p. 125). This measure is designed to help determine if the dispersion is worthy of further investigation.

Bivariate Correlation Analysis. Measures of association were used to examine how correlated independent variables may be with each of the dependent variables. Bivariate statistics measure the association between two variables at one time. This type of analysis is used to show whether or not each independent variable has significant influence over the dependent variable and if the variation of the dependent variable could be explained by the independent variable. It also serves for descriptive purposes in

its ability to describe how the dependent variable changes based on the separate categories of the independent variables. Correlation coefficients are considered as “a measure of comparative strength” (Nardi, 2003, p. 149). The type of correlation coefficient utilized must be determined by the level of measurement of the variable.

For bivariate analysis between an interval/ratio independent variable and an interval/ratio dependent variable, the Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson’s r) was used. Pearson’s r is calculated based on means, standard deviation and z scores. The mean and standard deviation are explained above; as z scores were used to standardize different measurement units so they could be compared. Z scores therefore served as the basis for interpreting the Pearson’s r , which is a measurement of “how much change in the z scores of one variable was related to change in the z scores of the other variable” (Nardi, 2002, p. 158).

Multiple Linear Regression

The general purpose of multiple regression is to learn more about the relationship between several independent or predictor variables and a dependent or criterion variable. Multiple regression can establish that a set of independent variables explains a proportion of the variance in a dependent variable at a significant level (through a significance test of R^2), and can establish the relative predictive importance of the independent variables (by comparing beta weights).

The models were evaluated with the following statistical techniques: R^2 , Adjusted R^2 , F -test; and standardized coefficient (β) in a hypothesis-testing framework regarding the individual predictors and overall models. The standardized

regression coefficient (β) weights of the individual predictors were evaluated by the considering the p value associated with their respective t statistic to determine if the variable was significant in the model. The p values of all statistics were used in deciding to reject the null hypotheses ($\alpha < .05$). The adequacy of the model considered multicollinearity and normality of the variables.

Independent Samples T Test

The Independent Samples T Test compares the mean scores of two groups on a given variable. The following are three assumptions when using the independent samples t-test: 1) The dependent variable is normally distributed; 2) The two groups have approximately equal variance on the dependent variable; and 3) The two groups are independent of one another. When using the independent samples t-test, essentially the null hypothesis is that the means of the two groups are not significantly different. To run the independent samples t test the dependent variable, the proportion of all students studying abroad was entered into the Test Variable box. The following eight independent variables were moved into the Grouping Variable Box one at a time: 1) classroom presentations by study abroad program alumni, 2) outreach to students in campus housing, 3) presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings, 4) presentations by study abroad program alumni at department faculty meetings, 5) presentations by study abroad faculty/staff at student club meetings, 6) presentations by study abroad program alumni at student club meetings, 7) e-mails from the study abroad office to the entire student population, and 8) a permanent link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website. Next, the groups were

defined. The value label for the university study abroad offices that do not implement the recruitment activity is 0. The value label for the university study abroad offices that implement the recruitment activity is 1.

In analyzing the descriptive statistics for the two groups the mean of each group is compared. The results from the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances determine whether the two groups have approximately equal variance on the dependent variable. If the Levene's Test is significant (the p-value under "Sig." is less than .05), the two variances are significantly different. If it is not significant (the p-value under "Sig." is greater than .05), the two variances are not significantly different; that is, the two variances are approximately equal. If the Levene's test is not significant, the second assumption has been met. Finally, the results of the Independent Samples T Tests were reviewed. Based on the Levene's test results, if the variances were approximately equal the two groups had approximately equal variance. Therefore, the top line of the Test for Equality of Means table in the SPSS output was applicable. If the variances were not equal, the bottom line in the Test for Equality of Means table in the SPSS output was applicable. There is a significant difference in the two groups if the p-value under "Sig." in the Test for Equality of Means table is .05 or less.

Research Question #1

A multiple linear regression was used to examine the first research question--- whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, the university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, the proportion of study abroad

staff, the average composite score on college entrance for the university's incoming class, and the percentage of the university's student receiving financial aid.

A multiple linear regression was conducted. Using the Enter method, the dependent variable (the proportion of the undergraduate student population) was entered and the five independent variables (relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the incoming class, and proportion of the university's students receiving financial aid) were entered. The adequacy of the model took into consideration multicollinearity and normality of the variables (mean, s.d).

Results were reported as R^2 , Adjusted R^2 , F-test, and standardized coefficient (β) in a hypothesis-testing framework regarding the predictors and overall model. The standardized coefficient (β) weights of the individual predictors were reported considering the p-value associated with their respective t statistic to determine if the variable was a significant individual predictor in the model. The p values of all statistics were used in deciding to reject the null hypotheses ($\alpha < .05$).

Research Question #2

A multiple linear regression was also used to examine the second research question--- whether the proportion of the minority student undergraduate population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, the university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, the proportion of study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance for the

university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's student receiving financial aid.

The Enter method was used to enter the dependent and independent variables. The adequacy of the model took into consideration multicollinearity and normality of the variables (mean, s.d.).

Results were reported as R^2 , F-test, and standardized coefficient (β) in a hypothesis-testing framework regarding the predictors and overall model. The standardized coefficient (β) weights of the individual predictors were reported considering the p-value associated with their respective t-statistic to determine if the variable was a significant individual predictor in the model. The p-values of all statistics were used in deciding to reject the null hypotheses ($\alpha < .05$).

Research Question #3

A multiple linear regression was used to examine the third research question---whether the proportion of the nonminority student undergraduate population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, the university's level of commitment to study internationalization and study abroad, the proportion of study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance for the university's incoming class, and proportion of the university's student receiving financial aid.

The Enter method was used to enter the dependent and independent variables. The adequacy of the model took into consideration multicollinearity and normality of the variables (mean, s.d.).

Results were reported as R^2 , Adjusted R^2 F-test, and standardized coefficient (β) in a hypothesis-testing framework regarding the predictors and overall model. The standardized coefficient (β) weights of the individual predictors were reported considering the p-value associated with their respective t-statistic to determine if the variable was a significant individual predictor in the model. The p-values of all statistics were used in deciding to reject the null hypotheses ($\alpha < .05$).

Research Question #4

Independent samples t-tests were conducted to examine the fourth research question— whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected recruitment activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs. The p-values of all statistics were used in deciding to reject the null hypotheses ($\alpha < .05$).

Research Question #5

Independent samples t-tests were also conducted to examine the fifth research question— whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected recruitment activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs. The p-values of all statistics were used in deciding to reject the null hypotheses ($\alpha < .05$).

Effect Size

The sample size has a direct impact on the appropriateness and the statistical power of the multiple regression. Small samples, usually characterized as having fewer than 20 observations are appropriate for analysis only by simple regression (Hair et al,

1998). While each of the data items have more than 20 observations, the number of observation is considered relatively small. In these situations, only very strong relationships can be detected with any degree of certainty.

CHAPTER 4

Results

For the purposes of this study the *Study Abroad Office Survey* instrument was developed and tested to identify current practices in study abroad offices and to investigate factors that may impact the number of overall students and the number of minority students that participate in study abroad programs. This study was conducted because a review of the literature indicated that minority students are underrepresented in study abroad programs. Also, there is legislation in Congress directed at increasing the overall number of U.S. students as well as the number of students from underrepresented groups studying abroad. Open doors (2004) reported that 16 % of the 191,321 U.S. students who studied abroad were minorities. However, White students represented 84% of the total number of students who studied abroad during the 2003-2004 school year.

The intent of this study was to identify the factors that contribute to the limited participation of undergraduate students and minority undergraduate students in study abroad programs. The rationale was to identify factors at the institutional level that contributed to the low participation rates in study abroad programs. Based upon a review of the literature and current research, the following hypotheses were tested:

Research Question #1. This research will examine whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 1.1: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 1.2: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀ 1.3: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀ 1.4: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class.

H₀ 1.5: The proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #2. This research will examine whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 2.1: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 2.2: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀ 2.3: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying

abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀2.4: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's incoming freshmen class.

H₀2.5: The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #3. This research will examine whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

H₀ 3.1: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀ 3.2: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the curriculum is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀3.3: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀3.4: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average composite SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's incoming freshmen class.

H₀3.5: The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Research Question #4. This research will examine whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs.

- H₀4.1: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad program alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.2: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.3: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by university study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.4: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad alumni at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.5: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.6: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.7: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.8: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity.
- Research Question #5. This research will examine whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected recruitment activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs.
- H₀5.1: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad program alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.

- H₀5.2: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.3: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by university study abroad office faculty/staff at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.4: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad alumni at department faculty meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.5: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.6: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀5.7: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.
- H₀4.8: There is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity.

The Survey Response Rate

The survey was distributed via web to study abroad directors, assistant directors and coordinators/directors and assistant directors of international education at the 101 Carnegie public doctoral research extensive universities serving undergraduates. The initial returns indicated that 40 respondents or nearly 40 % completed the survey. The

researcher conducted telephone follow-up with non-respondents to increase the response rate and address non-response bias. Thirteen of the study abroad directors, assistant directors and coordinators/directors and assistant directors of international education requested that the researcher re-send the survey and they completed and returned the survey. Twenty-nine study abroad directors, assistant directors and coordinators/directors and assistant directors of international education responded to the survey via telephone when contacted by the researcher. Therefore, the total response rate represented 81%.

Data Analysis Approach

Data analyses were conducted in the following manner. Descriptive characteristics (e.g., frequencies, means, standard deviations, and ranges) for all of the study measures were computed. Bivariate correlations were computed to examine the relationships between each dependent variable and the predictors. The Pearson correlation coefficient was examined to measure the strength of the relationship that the factors may have had on another factor included in the data set. It was examined for a weak relationship .00 to .34, a moderate relationship .35 to .69, and a strong relationship .70 to 1.00 (Gay, 2003). Correlation coefficients below .35 show only a slight relationship between variables (Gay, 2003).

Descriptive Statistics of Sample

Initially, descriptive statistics were computed for all variables for purposes of data cleaning and examining distributions. There were six data items that focused on general information about the university study abroad offices: where the study abroad

offices are organizationally situated within the university, the earliest point a student can study abroad, minimum grade point average (GPA) required to study abroad in a semester or quarter long program, GPA average required to study abroad in an academic year long program, minimum GPA required to study abroad in a summer or short-term (10 weeks or less), and the number of years the university study abroad office has been in existence. Please see table 1.

Table 1: Frequencies and Percentages: General Characteristics of study abroad program offices at Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities

Variable	%
Study Abroad Office is organizationally situated (N=82)	
Within a department that reports to the director of International Education or equivalent	37.0
Within an office that reports to a vice provost	22.2
Within an office that reports to a provost	9.9
Within an office that reports to a dean	17.3
Within an office that reports to a vice president	9.9
Other (associate vice provost, assistant vice provost)	3.7
Earliest Point Student Can Study Abroad (N=81)	
First Semester	17.3
Second Semester	45.7
Third Semester	35.8
Fourth Semester	1.2
Minimum Grade Point Average to Participate in Semester or Quarter Long Program (N=72)	
2.0 – 2.69	72.2
2.70 >	27.8
Minimum Grade Point Average to Participate in Academic Year Long Program (N=70)	
2.0 – 2.69	61.4
2.70 >	38.6
Minimum Grade Point Average to Participate Short-term Program (N=68)	
2.0 – 2.69	80.9
2.70 >	19.1
Number of Years University Had Study Abroad Program (N=82)	
0-5	1.2
6-10	2.4
11-15	15.9
16-20	6.1
21 .>	78.0

Where the study abroad office is organizationally situated. The majority (nearly 77%) of study abroad offices are part of an administrative unit that reports to the director of international education or a position with an equivalent title like director of international education services, to a vice provost or to a dean. In fact, 37% report to the director of international education followed by the vice provost with 22 % and the dean with 17%.

Earliest point a student can study abroad. All respondents report that students may participate in study abroad before their junior year (if other criteria are met). The second semester freshmen year was the most reported response as nearly 47 % of the responding universities allow second semester freshmen to participate in study abroad. Actually at 63 % of the responding universities, students are able to participate in study abroad in the freshmen year (first and second semester combined). The second most reported response was third semester (first semester of sophomore year) with nearly 36 %.

Minimum grade point average to participate in semester or quarter, academic year, or summer or short-term program. To participate in any of the study abroad programs, regardless of length, a minimum GPA of 2.0 is required at all responding universities. However, it is during the academic year long programs where GPA seems to make more of a difference. Sixty-one percent report that a minimum GPA in the range of 2.0 to 2.69 is required to participate in academic year programs and 39 % report that the minimum GPA must be at least 2.7 or greater. Conversely, shorter programs (summer or 10 weeks or less) have less stringent GPA requirements. Approximately

81 % of the universities report that a minimum GPA in the range of 2.0 to 2.69 is required to participate in short-term programs and 19 % require a GPA of 2.7 or higher to participate in summer programs. A GPA in the range of 2.0 to 2.69 is required at 72 % of the universities for term long programs.

Number of years the study abroad program has been in existence. The majority (78 %) of universities have had their study abroad program for 21 or more years. The next most reported response was 11 to 15 years. Surprisingly, there is only a weak correlation between the number of years the study abroad program has been in existence and two of the independent variables. Spearman's rho was used to calculate this correlation because the independent variable is not interval or scale data. The correlation for the proportion of all students studying abroad was .28 and for the proportion of nonminority students studying abroad the correlation was .34. The correlation (.22) for the proportion of the minority student population studying abroad was not significant.

Descriptive statistics were computed for the independent variables full-time and part-time faculty positions, full and part-time classified positions, and student workers. Please see table 2.

Table 2: Types and number of positions in study abroad offices at Carnegie public doctoral/ extensive universities by percentages

Variable	%
Full-time Faculty Positions (N=80)	
0	78.8
1	12.5
2 >	8.7
Part-time Faculty Positions (N=81)	
0	82.7
1-2	11.0
3 >	6.3
Full-time Classified Positions (N=79)	
0-3	39.2
4-7	38.0
8-11	15.2
12 >	7.6
Part-time Classified Positions (N=81)	
0	60.5
1	20.0
2	16.0
3 >	3.5
Number of Student Workers (N=81)	
0-3	45.7
4-7	35.8
8 >	18.5
Number of Student Workers who had Previously Participated in Study Abroad (N=79)	
0	16.5
1-2	31.6
3-7	33.2
8 >	12.7

Full and part-time faculty positions employed in the study abroad office. Nearly 80 % of the universities do not have any full-time faculty positions employed in the study abroad office and almost 83 % do not have any part-time faculty positions employed in the study abroad office.

Full and part-time classified positions. Seventy-seventy percent of universities have less than seven full-time classified positions. The mean is 5 full-time positions. There is a correlation ($r=.6$) between the proportion of full-time nonfaculty positions and

the proportion of all students studying abroad, a correlation ($r=.4$) between the proportion of minority students studying abroad, and $r=.6$ for the proportion of nonminority students studying abroad. Nearly 61 % have no part-time positions and 36 % have one or two part-time positions. The mean is less than one for part-time classified positions.

Student workers positions. Nearly 82 % of universities employ up to seven student workers in the study abroad office. The mean is 4.69 and the standard deviation is 3.362. There is a weak correlation between the proportion of student worker positions and one of the dependent variables. First, the correlation between the proportion of student worker positions and the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is $r=.32$. The correlations between the proportion of all undergraduate and nonminority undergraduates in the student population studying abroad are not significant.

Student workers that previously participated in study abroad. Nearly 46 % of universities have working in their study abroad office, students that have previously participated in a study abroad program. The mean is 3.56 and the standard deviation is 3.392. There is a weak correlation ($r=.31$) between the proportion of student workers who previously studied abroad and the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad. The correlation between student workers who previously studied abroad and the proportion of nonminority undergraduates in the student population is also $r=.3$.

Regarding membership in organizations that have a focus on international education the statistics are as follows. Please see table 3.

Table 3: Frequencies and Percentages: Selected Membership Affiliation of Carnegie public doctoral/extensive universities

Variable	%
Organizations that focus on international education and university is represented in the membership	
Council on International Education Exchange (CIEE) (N=80)	
Member	70.0
Not a member	30.0
International Student Exchange Program (ISEP) (N=81)	
Member	32.1
Not a member	67.9
Institute of International Education (IIE) (N=81)	
Member	80.2
Not a member	19.8
Forum on Education Abroad (N=80)	
Member	42.5
Not a member	57.5
NAFSA: Association of International Educators (N=81)	
Member	96.3
Not a member	3.7
American Council on Education (N=81)	
Member	66.7
Not a member	33.3
American Councils on Education (N=81)	
Member	9.9
Not a member	90.1
Fulbright Association (N=81)	
Member	65.4
Not a member	34.6
Other responses (reporting the name of associations that appeared at least 2 times	
Association for International Education Administrators (AIEA) appeared 6 times	
Institute for the International Education of Students (IES) appeared 2 times	

Membership in organizations that focus on international education. Participants were asked whether their universities were represented as part of the membership in eight organizations. NAFSA: Association of International Educators ranked first as over 96 % of respondents are members, followed by the IIE with over 80 % and the CIEE with 70 %.

The next table, table 4 delineates descriptive data on the commitment construct.

Table 4: Frequencies and Percentages: Inclusion of Internationalization of curriculum and campus in mission statement and study abroad in the strategic plan

Variable	%
Administrative Unit has Mission Statement (N=82)	
Yes	86.6
No	13.4
Mission Statement Mentions Internationalization of the Campus (N=62)	
Yes	68.3
No	31.7
Mission Statement Mentions Study Abroad (N=59)	
Yes	63.4
No	36.6
Administrative Unit has Strategic Plan (N=81)	
Yes	75.3
No	24.7
Strategic Plan Mentions Internationalization of the Campus (N=57)	
Yes	63.4
No	36.6
Strategic Plan Mentions Study Abroad (N=57)	
Yes	67.1
No	32.9

Mission statement/strategic plan. The respondents were asked whether their administrative unit has a mission statement. Over 86 % indicated that their unit has a mission statement. Over 63 % of the units have a mission statement that mentioned internationalization of the campus and curriculum and over 63 % mentioned study abroad. The respondents were also asked whether their administrative unit has a strategic plan. Over 75 % indicated that their unit has a strategic plan. Over 63 % of the units have a mission statement that mentions internationalization of the campus and curriculum and 67 % mentioned study abroad.

Table 5 summarizes responses to data item about student awareness activities which are used as independent variables in the Independent Samples T-Tests.

Table 5: Frequencies and Percentages: Selected recruitment activities implemented by study abroad office personnel at Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities

Variable	%
Classroom Presentations by Study Abroad Office Faculty/Staff (N=81)	
Do Not Implement	3.7
Very Effective	54.3
Somewhat Effective	42.0
Somewhat Ineffective	
Very Ineffective	
Classroom Presentations by Study Abroad Program Student Alumni (N=81)	
Do Not Implement	18.5
Very Effective	54.3
Somewhat Effective	27.2
Somewhat Ineffective	
Very Ineffective	
Outreach to Students in Campus Housing (N=81)	
Do Not Implement	12.3
Very Effective	19.8
Somewhat Effective	58.0
Somewhat Ineffective	9.9
Very Ineffective	
Distribute/Post Fliers (N=82)	
Do Not Implement	4.9
Very Effective	23.2
Somewhat Effective	67.1
Somewhat Ineffective	9.8
Very Ineffective	
Sponsor Table/Booth at Campus events (N=82)	
Do Not Implement	1.2
Very Effective	48.8
Somewhat Effective	50.0
Somewhat Ineffective	
Very Ineffective	
Presentations by Study Abroad Office Faculty/Staff at Department Faculty Meetings (N=82)	
Do Not Implement	32.9
Very Effective	19.5
Somewhat Effective	41.5
Somewhat Ineffective	6.1
Very Ineffective	
Presentations by Study Abroad Program Alumni at Department Faculty Meetings (N=82)	
Do Not Implement	78.0
Very Effective	4.9
Somewhat Effective	13.4

Somewhat Ineffective	3.7
Very Ineffective	
Presentations by Study Abroad Office Faculty/Staff at Student Club Meetings (N=78)	
Do Not Implement	35
Presentations by Study Abroad Program (students) at Student Club Meetings (N=82)	
Do Not Implement	37.8
Very Effective	20.7
Somewhat Effective	41.5
Somewhat Ineffective	
Very Ineffective	
E-mails from Study Abroad Office to Entire Student Population (N=82)	
Do Not Implement	28.8
Very Effective	23.8
Somewhat Effective	35.0
Somewhat Ineffective	12.5
Very Ineffective	
Permanent Link to the Study Abroad Office on University's Front Door Website (N=81)	
Do Not Implement	67.9
Very Effective	14.8
Somewhat Effective	17.3
Somewhat Ineffective	
Very Ineffective	
University on Quarter or Semester System (N=82)	
Quarter	11.0
Semester	89.0
Majority of Promotional Activities Occur	
If on Semester System (N=73)	
Fall	34.2
Spring	6.8
Evenly in Fall and Spring	59
If on Quarter System (N=9)	
Fall	77.8
Evenly in Fall, Winter, and Spring	22.2

Student awareness activities. The participants were asked whether they implemented certain activities as a way of informing the students about the study abroad program. Those that responded affirmatively were then asked to rate the effectiveness of the activity. Nearly all of the universities implemented the following three activities which seem to focus on students: classroom presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff, distributing or posting fliers, and sponsoring a table or booth at campus events. Regarding effectiveness, all respondents that implement classroom presentations

by faculty and staff and sponsorship of a table or booth at campus events rated the activities as effective. For the universities that distribute or post fliers, 67 % rated the activity as somewhat effective and nearly 10 % rated it as somewhat ineffective. Presentation by faculty/staff and presentations by study abroad program student alumni are recruitment strategies that appear to focus on faculty as a way to assist in the recruitment efforts. Nearly one-third of the respondents do not implement presentations by faculty/staff at department faculty meetings and 78 % do not implement presentations by study abroad program student alumni. Regarding, study abroad faculty/staff presentations at student club meetings, the variable was formed after collapsing presentations at the following student club meetings: African-American, Hispanic/Latino, Asian American and Native American. These variables were highly correlated, ranging from $r = .7$ to $r = .9$. As a result, there are not specific responses regarding effectiveness. However, all respondents that implement faculty/staff presentations at the individual student club meetings rated the activity as effective or somewhat effective.

There were three data items that requested information from study abroad office faculty/staff regarding perceptions. Please see table 6.

Table 6: Frequencies and Means: Obstacles to increasing participation in study abroad

Variable	Mean			
	All	N	Minority	N
Perceptions Regarding Barriers to Increasing the Number of Students Studying Abroad				
Lack of Information	3.01	82	3.65	80
Cost	4.6	82	4.93	80
Access to Financial Aid	2.94	82	3.04	80
Peer Pressure	2.58	80	3.72	76
Institutional Resistance to Support or Accommodate Study Abroad	2.43	81	2.39	79
Constrained Curricula	3.32	81	2.91	79
Credit not Counted Toward Degree	2.18	82	2.28	78
Lack of Foreign Language Competence	2.87	82	3.24	79
General Public Apathy in U.S. about Study Abroad	2.96	81	3.03	78
Faculty Apathy	2.93	81	2.85	78
Family Reluctance	3.54	81	4.22	78
Health, Safety, and Security Issues	3.0	80	3.46	78
Xenophobia	2.47	80	2.87	78

Perceived obstacles to increasing the number of students studying abroad.

Participants were asked to rate on a continuum how much of an obstacle each item is in increasing the overall number of students studying abroad. Then they were asked to rate on a continuum how much of an obstacle each item is to increasing the number of minority students studying abroad. The continuum was anchored on the left end with the words “not an obstacle” and on the right end with the words “extreme obstacle.” There were no values placed on the continuum and the participants could assume equal distance at each point. Therefore, in this study the researcher used the data as interval, rather than ordinal data. Even though the researcher gave the telephone respondents a visual picture of the continuum by saying there was a continuum with six spaces, the majority of participants answered the survey via web. Cost and family reluctance were the two major obstacles to increasing the number of study abroad participants as well as the number of minority participants. To interpret this in a meaningful way, on a scale of

6, cost was rated almost 5 as an obstacle to increasing the number of minority study abroad participants. Both, however, are perceived as more of an obstacle to increasing the number of minority students who study abroad. A constrained curriculum is the third ranked obstacle to increasing the number of all study abroad participants. Whereas, peer pressure is the third ranked obstacle to increasing the number of minority participants. Lack of information and health, safety and security issues ranked as fourth and fifth in terms of obstacles to increasing the total number of study abroad participants as well as the number of minority study abroad participants. Both, however, are perceived as more of an obstacle to increasing the number of minority students.

Table 7 delineates responses regarding perceptions about the benefits of study abroad.

Table 7: Frequencies and Percentages: Staff Perceptions of Greatest Benefits to Study Abroad

Variable	%
The Greatest Benefit to Students who Participate in Study Abroad (N=81)	
Increased Level of Foreign Language Proficiency	1.2
Increased Knowledge in one's Major Area of Study	0.0
Broadened Intellectual Perspective	53.1
Cross Cultural Adaptability	30.9
More Employment Opportunities	3.7
Other : Personal Growth, Greater Sense of Independence	

Over half of the respondents feel that the greatest benefit of participating in a study abroad program is a broadened intellectual perspective. Cross cultural adaptability is considered the greatest benefit by almost 31 %. Surprisingly, less than 5 % feel that increased level of foreign language proficiency and more employment opportunities are the greatest benefit.

Endowment. The mean endowment is 430, 289,500. The maximum endowment is 4,282,895,000 and the minimum endowment is 46, 276.

Percent financial aid. The mean percent of students receiving federal financial aid is 22 % and the standard deviation is 8.391. The minimum percent of a university's students that receive federal financial aid is 8% and the maximum is 52 %.

SAT/ACT Scores. The mean percent of the average score in the 75th percentile on the SAT is 1256 and the standard deviation is 78.20, while the minimum score is 1090 and the maximum is 1440. The maximum possible score for the SAT at the time was 1600. The mean percent of the average score in the 75th percentile on the ACT is 27 and the standard deviation is 1.87. The minimum ACT score was 23 and the maximum was 35. The maximum score possible for the ACT is 35. When standardized the SAT and the ACT are highly correlated ($r=.90$).

Table 8 delineates the number of students that participated in study abroad in the 2005 academic year.

Table 8: Mean: Number of students at Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities studying abroad by race/ethnicity

Variable	Mean
Total Number Students Studied Abroad 2005-2006 (N=79)	849
Number White/Caucasian Studied Abroad (N=58)	628
Number Black/African American (N=55)	34
Number Latino/Hispanic (N=54)	46
Number Asian/ Asian Americans (N=50)	62
Number Native American (N=41)	6
Number Multiracial or Other (N=41)	83
Reported Numbers Estimated	%
Yes	69.4
No	30.6

As listed in table 8, and corresponding to the literature far fewer minority students participate in study abroad. Nearly all of the participants (79 out of 81) responded to the question about the total number of students that studied abroad. However, when asked about the race/ethnicity of those individuals the response rate for this specific data item drastically decreased. The reported numbers were too small to conduct a meaningful analysis. As a result, the researcher collapsed all of the racial/ethnic groups into one variable, the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad.

Regression Analysis

The general purpose of multiple regression is to learn more about the relationship between several independent or predictor variables and a dependent or criterion variable. Multiple regression can establish that a set of independent variables explains a proportion of the variance in a dependent variable at a significant level (through a significance test of R^2), and can establish the relative predictive importance of the independent variables (by comparing beta weights).

The models were evaluated with the following statistical techniques: R^2 , Adjusted R^2 , F-test; and standardized coefficient (β) in a hypothesis-testing framework regarding the individual predictors and overall models. The standardized regression coefficient (β) weights of the individual predictors were evaluated by the considering the p value associated with the respective t statistic to determine if the variable is significant in the model. The p values of all statistics were used in deciding to

reject the null hypotheses ($\alpha < .05$). The adequacy of the model considered multicollinearity and normality of the variables (mean, standard deviation).

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for Research Question #1

In order to answer the first research question—whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by relative size of a university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization of its campus and curriculum and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the university's average composite score on college entrance exams, and proportion of the university's students receiving financial aid—the data were analyzed with a multiple linear regression model in order to test null hypotheses 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5. Results of the model for the first research question are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Results of Multiple Regression for Research Question # 1

Variables	SE B	Beta	R	R²	Adj R²
Model			0.728	0.529	0.486
Relative endowment	0.743	-.033			
Proportion of staff and student workers at university	.000	.518			
Mission/strategic plan scoring of 3 or more	.309	-.102			
Zscore for SAT unless missing then ACT	.008	.285			
Percent of university students receiving financial aid	.019	-.247			

Using the Enter method, the model fit was ($R=.728$, $R_2=.529$, $Adj R_2=.486$) as less than 50 % of the variance is explained. The overall model was significant ($F_{5,54}=12.41$, $p < 0.0005$).

Significant predictor variables in the model are shown below:

<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>P</u>
Proportion of study abroad office staff and student workers	.518	$p < 0.0005$
SAT Scores in the 75 th percentile for incoming freshmen	.285	$p=0.008$
Percent of the university's students receiving federal financial aid	-.247	$p=0.019$

Percent endowment per student and mentioning internationalization of the campus and curriculum in the mission statement and study abroad in the strategic plan were not significant predictors in this model.

Analysis of the standardized coefficients revealed the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the proportion of study abroad office staff and student workers, the SAT scores in the 75th percentile for incoming freshmen and the percent of the university's students receiving federal financial aid were significant predictors of the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad.

Predictors of the Proportion of the Undergraduate Student Population Studying Abroad and Testing of the Null Hypotheses 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5

H₀: 1.1 examined whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.033$, $t = -.328$, $p = .743$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the

undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀:1.2 examined whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by whether internationalization of the campus and curriculum and study abroad is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.102$, $t = -1.026$, $p = .309$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the campus and curriculum is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀: 1.3 examined whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = .518$, $t = 5.233$, $p < .0005$). Results indicate that the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers. For every unit increase in the proportion of staff and student workers the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is increased by .518. In other words, for every unit increase in the proportion of staff and student workers there will be a $\frac{1}{2}$ student increase in the number of students studying abroad. Or there will be an increase of one student abroad per 2000 students. Given that the t value is greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the

null hypothesis that with all other variables held constant, the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀1.4 examined whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta=.285$, $t=2.754$, $p=.008$). Results indicate that the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class. For every unit increase in the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class the undergraduate student population studying abroad increased by .284. Given that the t value is greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that with all other variables held constant, the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class.

H₀1.5 examined whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta= -.247$, $t= -2.417$, $p=.019$). Results indicate that the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid. For every unit increase in the

percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is decreased by .2417. Given that the t value is greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that with all other variables held constant, the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for Research Question #2

In order to answer the second research question— whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid--the data were analyzed with a multiple linear regression model in order to test null hypotheses 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5. Results of the model for the second research question are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Results of Multiple Regression for Research Question #2.

Variables	SE B	Beta	R	R²	Adj R²
Model			.490	.240	.145
Relative endowment	.777	-.041			
Proportion of staff and student workers at university	.001	.527			
Mission/strategic plan scoring of 3 or more	.620	-0.73			
Zscore for SAT unless missing then ACT	.767	-.044			
Percent of university students receiving financial aid	.665	.063			

Using the Enter method, the model fit was a poor fit ($R=.490$, $R^2=.240$, Adj $R^2=.145$) as only 15 % of the variance is explained. The overall model was significant ($F_{5,40}=2.526$, $p = .045$).

The only significant predictor variable in the model is shown below:

<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>Beta</u>	<u>P</u>
Proportion of study abroad office staff and student workers	.527	$p=.001$

Relative endowment, mentioning internationalization of the campus and curriculum in the mission statement and study abroad in the strategic plan were not significant predictors in this model. Average SAT/ACT scores in the 75th percentile and the percentage of students receiving federal financial aid were not significant predictors in this model.

Analysis of the standardized coefficients revealed the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the proportion of study abroad office staff and student workers.

Predictors of the Proportion of the Minority Undergraduate Student Population Studying Abroad and Testing of the Null Hypotheses 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5

H_0 : 2.1 examined whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.041$, $t = -.286$, $p = .777$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀: 2.2 examined whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by whether internationalization of the campus and curriculum and study abroad is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.073$, $t = -.499$, $p = .620$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the campus and curriculum and study abroad is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H₀: 2.3 examined whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = .527$, $t = 3.48$, $p = .001$). For every unit increase in the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers, the proportion of the minority population studying abroad is increased by .527. In other words, for every unit increase in the proportion of staff and student workers there will be a $\frac{1}{2}$ student increase in the number of minority students studying abroad. Or there will be an increase of one minority student abroad per 2000 students. Given that the t value is greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers.

H₀2.4 examined whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.044$, $t = -.298$, $p = .767$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class.

H₀2.5 examined whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = .063$, $t = .437$, $p = .063$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for Research Question #3

In order to answer the third research question—whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff and student workers, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the

university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid--the data were analyzed with a multiple linear regression model in order to test null hypotheses 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 4.4 and 3.5. Results of the model for the third research question are presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Results of multiple regression model for research question #3

Variables	SE B	Beta	R	R²	Adj R²
Model			0.658	0.433	.362
Relative endowment	.226	-.154			
Proportion of staff and student workers at university	.001	.494			
Mission/strategic plan scoring of 3 or more	.041	-.266			
Zscore for SAT unless missing then ACT	.006	.369			
Percent of university students receiving financial aid	.858	.022			

Using the Enter method, the model fit was ($R=.658$, $R^2=.433$, $Adj R^2=.362$) as 36 % of the variance is explained. The overall model was significant ($F_{5, 40}=2.834$, $p < .0005$).

Significant predictor variables in the model are shown below:

Predictor Variable	Beta	P
Proportion of study abroad office staff and student workers	.494	$p=.001$
SAT/ACT Scores in the 75 th percentile for incoming freshmen	.369	$p=.006$
Mentioning internationalization in the mission plan and study abroad in the strategic plan	-.266	$p=.041$

Relative endowment and percent of the university's students receiving financial aid were not significant predictors in this model.

Predictors of the Proportion of the Nonminority Undergraduate Student Population Studying Abroad and Testing of the Null Hypotheses 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5

H₀: 3.1 examined whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.154$, $t = -1.230$, $p = .226$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the relative size of the university's endowment.

H₀: 3.2 examined whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by whether internationalization of the campus and curriculum is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.266$, $t = -2.106$, $p = .041$). Results indicate that the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by whether internationalization of the campus and curriculum and study abroad is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan. If internationalization of the campus and curriculum and study abroad are mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate population is decreased by .266. Given

that the absolute t value is greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by whether internationalization of the campus and curriculum and study abroad is mentioned in the mission statement and study abroad is mentioned in the strategic plan.

H_0 : 3.3 examined whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta=.494$, $t=3.78$, $p=.001$). For every unit increase in the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers, the proportion of the nonminority population studying abroad is increased by .494. Given that the t value is greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers.

H_0 : 3.4 examined whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta=.369$, $t= 2.93$, $p=.006$). For every unit increase in the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class, the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is increased by .369. Given that the t value is greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that the proportion

of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the average SAT and ACT score in the 75th percentile for the university's freshmen class.

H₀3.5 examined whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid. Analysis of the standardized regression coefficient and associated p value reveals ($\beta = -.022$, $t = .179$, $p = .858$). Given that the t value is not greater than the critical t value of 1.96 and $p > .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is not influenced by the percentage of the university's students receiving federal financial aid.

Summary of the Results of the Three Regression Models

Of the three models, the first model was the best fit (Adjusted $R^2 = .486$). The first model which was used to answer the first research question also had the largest sample size. As the sample size decreases the standard error increases. As a result the models used to answer research questions # 2 and #3 were not as good, even though all three models were significant. The proportion of staff and student workers was the one variable that was significant in each of the models. The correlations between the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers and the three dependent variables are moderate; the proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad ($r = .6$), the proportion of the minority undergraduate population studying abroad ($r = .45$), and the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate population studying abroad ($r = .45$).

Relative endowment was not significant in any of the models. Relative endowment is negatively correlated ($r = -.28$), yet significant at $p = .021$, with the percent of the university's students receiving aid. Perhaps, universities are not using the endowments to fund study abroad and the majority of the costs is being borne by the family.

The university's commitment to internationalization of the campus and curriculum and to study abroad by way of the mission statement and strategic plan was significant in only one model. It appears that the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population decreases with the inclusion of internationalization in the mission statement and study abroad mentioned in the strategic plan.

Student achievement as measured by SAT and ACT scores did not influence the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad. Yet, it was found to influence the proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad and the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad. There is a significant correlation ($p < .0005$) between SAT/ACT scores ($r = .46$) and the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad. Likewise, SAT/ACT scores are correlated ($r = .5$) with the proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad at $p < .0005$.

The percent of the university's students receiving financial aid was significant in only one model. The proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad is influenced by the percent of a university's students receiving financial aid. The two variables are correlated at $r = -.47$.

Independent Samples T Test for Research Questions #4 and #5

The Independent Samples T Test compares the mean scores of two groups on a given variable. The following are three assumptions when using the independent samples t-test: 1) The dependent variable is normally distributed; 2) The two groups have approximately equal variance on the dependent variable; and 3) The two groups are independent of one another. When using the independent samples t-test, essentially the null hypothesis is that the means of the two groups are not significantly different.

Results of Independent Samples T Test for Research Question #4

In order to answer the fourth research question—whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when a university study abroad office implements selected recruitment activities to make students aware of study abroad programs--the data were analyzed with independent samples t tests in order to test null hypotheses 4.1 through 4.8. Results of the independent samples t tests for the fourth research question are presented in Table 12.

Table12: Results of the independent samples t tests for study abroad recruitment activities for research question # 4

Variables	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Classroom presentations by SA student alumni				
Implements	62	36.23	21.010	2.668
Does not implement	15	49.60	29.000	7.488
Difference of Means		13.382		
T =1.683 DF=17.716 P value =.110				
Outreach to Students in Campus Housing				
Implements	68	39.49	23.550	2.856
Does not implement	9	33.68	20.760	6.920
Difference of Means		-5.814		
T =.704 DF=75 P value =.483				
Presentations by SA faculty/staff at dept. meetings				
Implements	52	38.33	23.108	3.204
Does not implement	26	39.65	23.343	4.578

Difference of Means			1.319	
T =.237 DF=76 P value =.813				
Presentations by SA student alumni at dept. meetings				
Implements	17	45.45	27.943	6.777
Does not implement	61	36.91	21.425	2.743
Difference of Means		-8.547		
T =-1.360 DF=76 P value =.178				
Presentations by SA faculty/staff at student club meetings				
Implements	49	43.45	24.654	3.522
Does not implement	28	30.73	18.000	3.413
Difference of Means		-12.726		
T = -2.595* DF=70.366 P value =.012**				
Presentations by SA student alumni at student club meetings				
Implements	48	40.77	23.199	3.348
Does not implement	30	35.57	22.813	4.165
Difference of Means		-5.196		
T =-.972 DF=76 P value =.336				
Mass e-mails from SA office to students				
Implements	53	37.23	19.829	2.724
Does not implement	23	39.35	22.501	4.692
Difference of Means		2.115		
T =.390 DF=37.524 P value =.699				
Permanent link to the study abroad office on the university front door website				
Implements	25	33.21	21.810	4.362
Does not implement	52	39.66	19.846	2.752
Difference of Means		6.435		
T = 1.294 DF=75 P value =.200				

Predictors of Awareness Activities and Testing of Null Hypotheses 4.1 through 4.8

H₀4.1 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when classroom presentations by study abroad program student alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 12), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad

when classroom presentations by study abroad program student alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀4.2 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when conducting outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 12), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀4.3 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad faculty/staff at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 12), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad faculty/staff at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀4.4 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad

student alumni at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 12), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀4.5 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. The mean difference between the group implementing presentations by study abroad student alumni and the group not implementing this activity is -12.726; the t statistic is -2.595 with 70.288 degrees of freedom and an associated p value of .012. Given that the absolute value of t is greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p < .05$, we reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. The mean for the group implementing the activity (43.45) is higher than the mean for the group not implementing this activity (30.73). The researcher recommends that universities not implementing this activity begin to do so.

H₀4.6 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 12), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀4.7 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad programs to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 12), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀4.8 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there

is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 12), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity.

Results of Independent Samples T Test for Research Question #5

In order to answer the fifth research question—whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when a university study abroad office implements selected recruitment activities to make students aware of study abroad programs--the data were analyzed with independent samples t tests in order to test null hypotheses 5.1 through 5.8. Results of the independent samples t test for the fourth research question are presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Results of independent samples t tests for recruitment activities regarding increasing minority participation in study abroad for research question # 5

Variables	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Classroom presentations by SA student alumni				
Implements	48	19.14	14.663	2.116
Does not implement	10	50.06	87.176	27.567
Difference of Means		30.919		
T = 2.376 DF = 9.106 P value = .292				
Outreach to Students in Campus Housing				
Implements	49	19.64	14.745	2.106
Does not implement	8	55.13	98.008	34.651
Difference of Means		35.486		
T = .910 DF = 55 P value = .367				
Presentations by SA faculty/staff at dept. meetings				
Implements	36	18.18	14.557	2.426
Does not implement	22	34.76	59.860	12.762
Difference of Means		16.573		
T = 1.022 DF = 7.052 P value = 1.022				
Presentations by SA student alumni at dept. meetings				
Implements	10	27.77	25.031	7.916

Does not implement	48	42.79	61.331	8.852
Difference of Means		15.021		
T = .757 DF=56 P value =.452				
Presentations by SA faculty/staff at student club meetings				
Implements	39	26.64	45.691	7.316
Does not implement	19	20.02	19.036	4.367
Difference of Means		-6.612		
T = -6.04 DF=56 P value =.549				
Presentations by SA student alumni at student club meetings				
Implements	36	19.11	14.487	2.415
Does not implement	22	33.24	60.294	12.855
Difference of Means		35.468		
T =1.917 DF=22.431 P value =.068				
Mass e-mails from SA office to students				
Implements	39	20.71	15.759	2.253
Does not implement	19	32.18	64.678	14.838
Difference of Means		14.127		
T =1.3 50 DF=56 P value =.182				
Permanent link to the study abroad office on the university front door website				
Implements	15	15.71	15.091	3.896
Does not implement	43	27.52	44.098	6.725
Difference of Means		11.809		
T = 1.012 DF=56 P value =.316				

Predictors of Awareness Activities and Testing of Null Hypotheses 5.1 through 5.8

H₀5.1 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when classroom presentations by study abroad program student alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when classroom presentations by study abroad program student alumni are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀5.2 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when conducting outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when outreach to students in campus housing is implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀5.3 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad faculty/staff at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad faculty/staff at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀5.4 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis

that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is less than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at department meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

$H_{05.5}$ examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad office faculty/staff at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

$H_{05.6}$ examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority

undergraduate student population studying abroad when presentations by study abroad student alumni at student club meetings are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀5.7 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails about study abroad programs to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.

H₀5.8 examined whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when a link to the study abroad office on the university's front door website is implemented as a recruitment activity. With the significance level (or alpha) set at $\alpha = .05$, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference. Given that the t value is not greater than the critical value of 1.96 and $p > .05$ (see Table 13), we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is not a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when mass e-mails to the entire student population are implemented as a recruitment activity.

Summary of Independent T tests for Research Questions #4 and #5

The proportion of undergraduate students studying abroad was influenced by presentations by study abroad faculty and staff at student club meetings. The majority of other recruitment and promotional strategies were rated as effective by study abroad personnel. However, the mean differences between the group that implemented the activities and the group that does not implement the activities were not significant.

The proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad was not influenced by any of the activities. The sample size was smaller and effect size probably had an impact on the results. Indeed, the activities should continue until there is sufficient evidence to prove otherwise.

The results of the data analyses have helped to answer the research questions. The next chapter will offer conclusions in how the data relates to the literature including the relationship of the results to statistical and data analysis. This chapter will also indicate the implications that this research can have in the area of increasing the number of study abroad participants and meeting public policy objectives.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

In order to gain a better understanding of the results presented in Chapter 4, this chapter will discuss the significant findings and contextualize them in light of the current body of research. Recommendations will be made that will allow for a better understanding of the outcomes derived from the data analysis.

Using survey research, the main purpose of this exploratory study was to identify factors at the institutional level that may influence the participation rates of the entire undergraduate student population as well as the minority undergraduate population in study abroad programs. The review of the literature identified barriers, mostly at the individual level, that contributed to non-participation by some of the minority groups. Awareness of study abroad programs was identified as one of the major obstacles to study abroad. The literature also revealed strategies that could be implemented at the institutional level to increase to achieve a greater level of internationalization. The literature suggests that study abroad is one of the most effective tools to realizing a greater level of internationalization. An instrument, the Study Abroad Office Survey was developed and validated by field testing for data collection. The survey was

distributed via web to study abroad personnel at the Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities.

From the literature review the university's commitment to internationalization, university resources, and the university study abroad office efforts to make students aware of study abroad programs were identified as factors that may provide some insight into what universities are doing and to address the problem of low participation rates in study abroad. The institution's endowment, its average student achievement test scores and the percentage of its student receiving financial aid are factors typically evaluated in higher education. Five research questions were developed to investigate how the universities address these issues.

Overview of Significant Findings

Research question #1 asked whether the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

Research question #2 asked whether the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on

college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

Research question #3 asked whether the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad is influenced by: relative size of the university's endowment, university's level of commitment to internationalization and study abroad, proportion of university study abroad staff, the average composite score on college entrance exams for the university's incoming class, and percentage of the university's students receiving financial aid.

Conducting a multiple regression analysis allowed the researcher to answer parts of these three questions. Of the three models, the first model was the best fit (Adjusted $R^2 = .486$). The first model which was used to answer the first research question also had the largest sample size. As the sample size decreases the standard error increases. As a result the models used to answer research questions # 2 and #3 were not as good a fit, even though all three models were significant. The proportion of staff and student workers was the one variable that was significant in each of the models. The correlations between the proportion of study abroad staff and student workers the three dependent variables are moderate; the proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad ($r = .6$), the proportion of the minority undergraduate population studying abroad ($r = .45$), and the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate population studying abroad ($r = .45$). The literature supports this finding. Human resources are instrumental in achieving a level of internationalization that will make U.S. college students more competitive in a global environment (Pickert, 1992; Schoorman, 2000).

Relative endowment was not significant in any of the models. Relative endowment is negatively correlated ($r = -.28$), yet significant at $p = .021$, with the percent of the university's students receiving aid. Perhaps, universities are not using the endowments to fund study abroad and the majority of the costs is being borne by the family.

The university's commitment to internationalization of the campus and curriculum and to study abroad by way of the mission statement and strategic plan was significant in only one model. The proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population decreases with inclusion of internationalization in the mission statement and mention of study abroad in the strategic plan. This finding may appear to be contradicting rather than agreeing with the literature. Some view mission statements as a document that is simply displayed and strategic plans as documents that collect dust on managers' shelves and some staff are not aware of its contents.

Student achievement as measured by SAT and ACT scores did not influence the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad. Yet, it was found to influence the proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad and the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad. There is a significant correlation ($p < .0005$) between SAT/ACT scores ($r = .46$) and the proportion of the nonminority undergraduate student population studying abroad. Likewise, SAT/ACT scores are correlated ($r = .5$) with the proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad at $p < .0005$.

The percent of the university's students receiving financial aid was significant in only one model. The proportion of all undergraduate students studying abroad is influenced by the percent of a university's students receiving financial aid. The two variables are correlated at $r = .47$. As the university's percent of students receiving financial aid increases the proportion of students studying abroad decreases. This finding supports the idea that first generation college students, many of whom receive financial aid, may think that a college education is a milestone and a necessity and study abroad is not viewed as being crucial or relevant to their overall education experience.

Two additional questions addressed what universities are doing to make students aware of study abroad programs. Research question #4 asked whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs. Research question #5 asked whether there is a significant difference in the proportion of the minority undergraduate student population studying abroad when selected recruitment activities are implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs.

The proportion of undergraduate students studying abroad was influenced by presentations by study abroad faculty and staff at student club meetings. The majority of other recruitment and promotional strategies were rated as effective by study abroad personnel. However, the mean differences between the group that implemented the activities and the group that does not implement the activities were not significant. Responses to data items # 18 and # 19 help to answer this question. Study abroad

personnel responded that lack of information about study abroad programs is a major obstacle to increasing the number of all students and minority students in study abroad programs. In fact, lack of information about study abroad was cited as the third major obstacle to increasing minority participation in study abroad. Cost and family reluctance were cited as the top reasons or obstacles to increasing minority participation in study abroad. Lack of awareness was the fourth obstacle to increasing the number of all students studying abroad. Cost, family reluctance and a constrained curriculum were rated as more of an obstacle than lack of information with regard to increasing the number of all students studying abroad. In other words, the mean score (3.65) for the awareness factor was higher for increasing the number of minority students than for all students (3.01) indicating that it is more of an obstacle to increasing minority participation. The literature also supports this finding. King & Young (1994) and Washington (1998) cited awareness as the major reason African Americans do not participate in study abroad programs.

The Relationship of the Results to Statistical and Practical Significance

The significant relationships found in this study must be contextualized in light of the small sample size ($N = 101$). The sample size has a direct impact on the appropriateness and the statistical power of the multiple regression. In these situations, only very strong relationships can be detected with any degree of certainty. As mentioned, the relationships were small but highly statistically significant. However, it is important to note that the results also are practically significant given the study's design.

Consideration of Findings in Light of Existing Research

The literature that served as the basis for this study revealed that the lack of minority participation in study abroad programs should be addressed. According to Stoop (1988) minority student involvement in study abroad must be increased. Minority students should be involved in every aspect of higher education. This lack of participation is contrary to equal education opportunity. There is legislation in the U.S. Congress that not only seeks to increase participation among underrepresented groups, but seeks to increase participation among all U.S. college undergraduates.

The first consideration in light of the findings, is access to study abroad. The current study revealed (as perceived by the study population) that access to study abroad when measured by the cost of studying abroad is the main reasons students do not participate in study abroad. Cost was rated as 4.93 on a 6.0 scale as a being a major obstacle to increasing the number of minority study abroad participants and 4.6 for increasing the number of overall study abroad participants.

However, when looking at institutional barriers; that is, the components the universities can directly control, the barriers appear minimal to nonexistent. At 63 % of the responding universities, students are able to participate in study abroad when they are first year students. In fact, 17 % allow their students to study abroad in their first semester. Of course, to participate in study abroad the first semester of the college career a lot of forethought and planning must be in place. Attrition and retention rates of minorities, with the exception of Asian and Asian Americans, have been used to explain why some minorities do not participate in study abroad. Asian and Asian Americans

have the highest retention rate among all ethnic groups (Van Der Meid, 2004). The earliest point in the college career alone does not solely address the access issue. Academic performance as measured by the college cumulative GPA is another issue related to access. All responding universities have at least one program that will allow students with a GPA in the range of 2.0 to 2.69 as a minimum, to participate in study abroad. Over 80 % of the universities have short-term or summer programs where the GPA requirement is not as high. Essentially, students in good academic standing can participate in a study abroad program even if it is for 10 weeks or shorter. For some institutions, in good academic standing means the cumulative GPA must be at least 2.0. However, pre-departure academic performance is a predictor of how well a student will perform abroad academically (Scott and McMahon, 1998).

Access to study abroad with regard to attrition and retention rates and GPA requirements does not seem to be a major deterrent as students can study abroad as early as their first year and short-term programs are available for all students, even students whose GPAs reflect that they are not among the highest achievers.

The second consideration in light of the literature is the availability of resources. Commitment of human resources is essential if internationalization on college campuses is to be achieved (Pickert, 1992; Schoorman, 2000). The majority of university study abroad offices employ nonfaculty and student workers. These positions seem to make a major impact on the number of students studying abroad. When the proportion of staff and student workers increases so does the proportion of students studying abroad. As in many organizational settings, funding of additional positions may be an issue. Human

resources are paramount in achieving internationalization. Some educators note that funding is the biggest obstacle to the process. In fact, internationalization may require the reorganization of funding priorities by the universities (National Task Force on Study Abroad Education, 1990; Schoorman, 2000). Further, this research suggests that staff presentations to students in a setting outside of the classroom, at student clubs meetings, has a significant effect on the number of students studying abroad.

External resources are equally important. Data item # 8 on the *Study Abroad Office Survey* asked participants which organizations that focused on international education were they represented as part of the membership. NAFSA, IIE and CIEE are the three organizations with which at least 70 % of respondents have membership and affiliation. NAFSA had a lead role in the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Commission which made recommendations to legislators who sponsored the Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Act. The Commission also included representation from the CIEE and IIE and other organizations that focus on international education and study abroad. In addition, organizations like the American Council on education deal with a variety of issues including equity in education and student achievement. The achievement gap with regard to minorities and study abroad as a way to achieve internationalization is extremely wide. First, universities should look systematically at the services these organizations provide to assess the benefits derived. Pending the outcome of this assessment, the universities should consider how they are utilizing the services. Perhaps, these resources should be more fully accessed. Being a member of an organization entitles the membership to the resources the organization possesses. More active

participation from members may be needed as the agenda setting stage within the organization may potentially affect outcomes like public funding. Membership affiliation alone may not further the goals of the university. Or, universities may determine that they can achieve greater benefit by creating different alliances or using the funding allocated for membership and associated costs elsewhere.

The third consideration in light of the literature is student achievement with regard to the choice to study abroad. This current study showed that the higher the average score on SAT/ACT for the university's incoming freshmen, a higher proportion of students studied abroad. This measure of student achievement is based on pre-college years. It may be prudent to make students aware of international education opportunities, including study abroad sooner rather than later. If students are pre-disposed, prior to coming to college, to study abroad then all students should be aware of the possibilities to participate. Students from low-income families and first generation college students may not be aware of these opportunities prior to coming to college. Norfles (2003) conducted a study to determine what barriers prevent students from low-income families and first generation college students from participating in study abroad opportunities. Lack of information and costs were the two main reasons these students do not participate in study abroad. This concurs with data obtained from the current study. Data items # 18 and # 19 asked respondents to rate how much of a barrier specific items are to increasing the number of students that study abroad. Question # 18 referred to all students and #19 referred to increasing the number of minority students. Cost was ranked as the main obstacle to study abroad and lack of information ranked

fourth. Some universities receive funding for TRIO programs which are designed to offer special services for first generation college students. Programs such as Upward Bound may be sponsored with TRIO funding. While still in high school, students in upward bound programs are exposed to college life. Perhaps, the importance of international education and study abroad programs should be discussed with these students. Further, universities have partnerships with local school systems and they engage in activities with students in elementary, middle and high school. It seems as though exposure to aspects of international education could be instituted much earlier.

The fourth consideration in light of the literature is outreach with regard to study abroad. Awareness of study abroad opportunities is a major obstacle (Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Norfles, 2003; Stoop, 1988; Washington; 1998). While not the major obstacle, the current study found lack of information to be one of the major obstacles to increasing the number of students studying abroad. Standard recruitment activities implemented to make students aware of study abroad programs include classroom presentations by study abroad office staff, sponsoring a table or booth at campus events and posting and distributing fliers, among others. Perhaps, more innovative marketing strategies should be devised. A marketing plan that has components designed to not only make students aware of study abroad programs, but other university faculty and staff as well as the parents of the students may be needed. The current study found that family reluctance was the second most cited reason students do not participate in study abroad. Campus admissions offices, advising offices, career development offices and community

engagement programs should be aware of the international education opportunities and benefits to study abroad.

The marketing plan could also include a component for a more savvy technological approach to inform students about study abroad. Some students rarely access their official school e-mail accounts and when they do, they treat the correspondence from university staff as spam. However, some of these same students spend time in cyberspace on social networking sites. While there are definitely safety and security concerns that should be considered, perhaps we have to meet the students where they are to deliver the message. Whether in cyberspace or in after hours student club meetings we may have to meet them where they are. Research question # 4 addressed whether selected activities had an influence on the proportion of students studying abroad. Presentations by study abroad office faculty and staff at student club meetings had a positive influence on the proportion of students studying abroad. The student club meetings may not take place in the course of a workday. Perhaps, there may be a need to be flexible to attend these meetings at not so typical times.

Lastly, like any marketing plan, it should be geared to specific audiences and groups. In the current study, peer pressure was cited as the third major obstacle to increasing the number of minority students studying abroad. Media and visuals that include “people like me,” may be what is needed to attract minority students to study abroad programs (Jackson, 2005).

The fifth and final consideration in light of the literature is leadership and coordination of the study abroad program. The current study revealed that of

administrative units that have a strategic plan, nearly 37 % do not mention internationalization and 33 % do not mention study abroad. It appears that even when internationalization and study abroad are mentioned it does not make a positive difference. While 37 % of the respondents in the current study report that the study abroad office is under the direct leadership and management of a director of international services (or an equivalent title) the responsibility to provide exposure to an international education does not rest here. Equally important is the role leadership plays in successful attempts to internationalize. The leadership role of several key senior administrators, specifically, the university president, provost or vice president for Academic Affairs, and deans are seen as critical to the success of internationalization efforts. Presidents and vice provosts can initiate and encourage faculty to take advantage of international travel opportunities, communicate the importance of internationalization to the educational mission of the institution, assist in development and fundraising efforts regarding international travel opportunities, and expand the departments involved in international travel. Deans can impact the process by making hiring decisions that support internationalization efforts (Schoorman, 2000).

The following functions are critical to the success of international education efforts, particularly study abroad: Advising, Admissions, Career Services and Civic and Community Engagement Programs. Advisors can help inform students of requirements to study abroad as well as inform them of approaching application deadlines and the applicability of study abroad to their chosen field of study. Admissions officers can communicate to prospective students the various study abroad programs when they are

engaging in recruitment activities, off-campus and on-campus. Career services personnel can inform students of the applicability of a study abroad program to their career goals. Although the current study revealed that study abroad personnel do not view employment opportunities as the greatest benefit to a period of study abroad, previous studies have documented this. The effects of study abroad are felt long after students return, as 95 percent of the Institute for the International Education of Students' alumni reported that their study abroad experiences had a long lasting impact on their world view and a majority said that study abroad influenced their career path (Akanke & Slawson, 2004). Using data from the American Council on Education (ACE), Hayward and Siaya (2001, p. 23) found that students believed that gaining international skills and competencies would help them work with people from different cultures and provide a competitive edge when entering the workforce. Nearly 75 % of respondents believe it is important for college students to participate in a study abroad program while working toward an undergraduate degree.

Implications

This research establishes data that describe the characteristics of study abroad offices in Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities and describes some of the factors that influence the number of students studying abroad. This research will be of value for both researchers interested in additional study of underrepresented groups in study abroad and for practitioners seeking to implement different recruitment approaches. The results will have direct benefits for policy makers and grantors by informing decisions on grant-making and study abroad program development.

It is critical that policymakers and practitioners understand the important lessons from the literature presented as it relates to the task ahead in increasing the number of U.S. students studying abroad, particularly the underrepresented students. The findings add to the existing body of research that lack of awareness of study abroad programs and costs are perceived as major barriers to increasing the number of undergraduates as well minority undergraduates studying abroad.

There are two major implication of this study. First, there is the notion of political accountability and political will to address the problem of the huge gap in minority participation in study abroad. There is a need to lobby legislators regarding the fate of the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship legislation. The bill as proposed provides for fellowships to undergraduate students to study abroad and that the opportunities to receive the fellowships will also be extended to members of underrepresented groups so the population of U.S. students studying abroad will mirror the U.S. undergraduate population as a whole. The fellowships address cost, which will give all undergraduates, including minorities additional funding to assist in their efforts to fund education abroad.

The bill may need to be reevaluated to ensure that there is indeed accountability. Surely, parts of the bill will be negotiated if it is to go further. Different cabinet departments, including the Department of State and the Department of Education will have responsibilities and coordination functions. There is a great need to maintain a uniform system of data reporting and collecting in order to assess whether the goals are being met. There is no way to measure whether the number of minority students is

increasing at a rate comparable to the rate of nonminorities if the information is not uniformly collected and maintained. Perhaps, there currently are reporting requirements whereby pieces of the information are maintained by different agencies. When this researcher contacted several different federal agencies to ascertain the number of students studying abroad from public universities it was stated that the information was not available.

Secondly, universities should systematically assess what the entire university, not just the Offices or Departments of Internationalization are doing to achieve greater internationalization. Funding alone will not address the low study abroad participation rates. Methodically, there are ways to improve programs and all of the obstacles to increasing the number of students studying abroad cannot be fully addressed by the study abroad offices. Rather, the study abroad offices should be used as a support to university efforts to internationalize the campus and the curriculum. Higher education administrators should consider embedding internationalization in the curriculum by finding ways of making an international experience a more routine part of attending a twenty-first century university. There are documented benefits to study abroad and it is as a method to achieve a greater level of internationalization. Inasmuch, study abroad should be a requirement for most if not all majors, at least at the undergraduate level.

Increasing the extremely low participation rate and even lower minority participation rate in U.S. study abroad will not be achieved if more drastic measures are not taken at both the political level and the institutional level.

“It is the task of education, more than any other instrument of public policy, to help close the dangerous gap between the economic and technological interdependence of the peoples of the world and their psychological, political, and spiritual isolation.” ----Senator J. William Fulbright
(Fulbright Mission, 1996-97)

Limitations

There are three main limitations to the study. The literature provides that there needs to be a better system for collecting data for study abroad and exchange programs. In a 1968 report by Bowman (p.178), he addressed this need and recognized the Institute of International Education (IIE) as performing excellent work in this area. The IIE has continued to collect data. This researcher contacted the IIE in an effort to gain access to data disaggregated by race for the public Carnegie doctoral/research extensive universities. When the IIE collects the data, it assures the responding universities that their responses will remain confidential. Therefore, even for research purposes only, the researcher was not given access to the information. While IIE is the only national instrument for collecting study abroad data, many institutions and organizations gather their own data. There is no uniformity in the way data are collected and reported by the selected 101 universities. So as not to place additional burden on the respondents, the questionnaire requested estimates if the data were not maintained in written form, accessible from a database or if the information was unavailable or not collected. The questionnaire did not request that the data be disaggregated by undergraduate and graduate even though the researcher is most interested in study abroad programs with regard to undergraduates and the most impacting public policy initiative regarding study

abroad is targeting undergraduate students. However, undergraduates account for nearly 90 % of the United States study abroad population (Open Doors, 2005).

Next, the population for the study was small and as a result the researcher was not able to isolate any particular minority group. Rather, all of the different minority groups were combined and the study was conducted using minority and nonminority as groups.

Finally, the researcher wanted to assess the impact that the institutions financial resources, by way of the study abroad staff operating budget, have on the proportion of students studying abroad. While the number of staff is an indicator of budget expenses, the data item was worded such that participants did not get the intended meaning of the question. This resulted in answers ranging from 1.2 million to 150,000. Endowment is a measure of the institutions financial resources but the operating budget is a direct indication of commitment of resources.

Recommendations for Future Study

The present study creates a number of avenues for future research. First, an in-depth case study conducted at several universities over a period of time may help us to gain more insight into the specific procedures implemented in study abroad offices. As this current study was exploratory, more detailed knowledge would benefit study abroad practitioners. The case study could be conducted at Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive or intensive universities since they tend to send the largest number of students abroad. However, to get the full benefit of a qualitative study like the researcher is suggesting, a number of universities should be compared and contrasted.

Research is also needed to determine what private institutions and HBCUs are doing to attract students to study abroad. The regression models used in the current study were found to be significant and this study could be replicated with other populations. By modifying and repeating this study with other populations, the study could be expanded to specific groups to evaluate whether the findings in this study can be generalized beyond the institutions used in this study.

Lastly, Washington (1998) recommended that research was needed on the perceptions and attitudes of African American secondary school students toward study abroad programs. “For the most part, by the time these students become undergraduates they may have already developed a perception regarding study abroad and international education exchange in general.” In conjunction with this recommendation, this investigator believes that research at the institutional level of analysis should be conducted to explore and examine how secondary schools approach international education and the possibilities of studying abroad with their respective students.

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Appendix A

The following is a list of Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities.

Alabama
Auburn University
University of Alabama, The
University of Alabama at Birmingham
Arizona
Arizona State University Main
University of Arizona
Arkansas
University of Arkansas Main Campus
California
University of California-Berkeley
University of California-Davis
University of California-Irvine
University of California-Los Angeles
University of California-Riverside
University of California-San Diego
University of California-Santa Barbara
University of California-Santa Cruz
Colorado
Colorado State University
University of Colorado at Boulder
Connecticut
University of Connecticut
Delaware
University of Delaware
Florida
Florida International University
Florida State University

University of Florida
University of South Florida
Georgia
Georgia Institute of Technology
Georgia State University
University of Georgia
Hawaii
University of Hawaii at Manoa
Idaho
University of Idaho
Illinois
Northern Illinois University
Southern Illinois University at Carbondale
University of Illinois at Chicago
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Indiana
Indiana University at Bloomington
Purdue University Main Campus
Iowa
Iowa State University
University of Iowa
Kansas
Kansas State University
University of Kansas Main Campus
Kentucky
University of Kentucky
University of Louisville
Louisiana
Louisiana State University and A&M College
Maine
University of Maine
Maryland
University of Maryland Baltimore County
University of Maryland College Park
Massachusetts
University of Massachusetts
Michigan
Michigan State University
University of Michigan-Ann Arbor
Wayne State University
Western Michigan University
Minnesota
University of Minnesota-Twin Cities
Mississippi
Mississippi State University

University of Mississippi
University of Southern Mississippi
Missouri
University of Missouri-Columbia
Nebraska
University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Nevada
University of Nevada, Reno
New Hampshire
University of New Hampshire
New Jersey
Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick
New Mexico
New Mexico State University Main Campus
University of New Mexico Main Campus
New York
City University of New York Graduate Center
State University of New York at Albany
State University of New York at Binghamton
State University of New York at Buffalo
State University of New York at Stony Brook
North Carolina
North Carolina State University
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
Ohio
Kent State University Main Campus
Ohio State University Main Campus,
Ohio University, Main Campus
University of Cincinnati Main Campus
University of Toledo
Oklahoma
Oklahoma State University Main Campus
University of Oklahoma Norman Campus
Oregon
Oregon State University
University of Oregon
Pennsylvania
Pennsylvania State University, University Park
Temple University
University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh Campus
Rhode Island
University of Rhode Island
South Carolina
Clemson University
University of South Carolina- Columbia

Tennessee
University of Memphis, The
University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Texas
Texas A&M University
Texas Tech University
University of Houston
University of North Texas
University of Texas at Arlington
University of Texas at Austin
Utah
University of Utah
Utah State University
Vermont
University of Vermont
Virginia
Old Dominion University
University of Virginia
Virginia Commonwealth University
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Washington
University of Washington
Washington State University
West Virginia
West Virginia University
Wisconsin
University of Wisconsin-Madison
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee
Wyoming
University of Wyoming

Appendix B

The purpose of this survey is to describe the characteristics and practices of study abroad programs in United States' colleges and universities with regard to student participation overall and particularly minority students' participation in study abroad tours. The data collected from your responses will be used to comprehensively describe the activities and efforts study abroad personnel at Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities employ as it relates to general characteristics of study abroad programs and the activities conducted by study abroad directors and directors of international education to address participation overall and particularly minority participation in study abroad programs. We are particularly interested in your university as it is one of the Carnegie public doctoral/research extensive universities. Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to answer any question. The data collected will be reported in the aggregate and your responses and identity will be confidential in that your name or the name of the university will not be used. The survey should take only about 10 minutes to complete. We would be more than willing to share the results of this study with you.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study abroad program evaluation research, please contact Felecia D. Williams at williamsfd@vcu.edu.

The principal investigator for this research is Dr. Robert D. Holsworth, Dean, College of Humanities and Sciences. Should you have concerns or questions about your rights as a research subject, contact Dean Holsworth at 804-828-1674 (rholswor@vcu.edu).

Please click on the link to begin.

General information

1. At your university what is the earliest point a student is able to participate in a study abroad program?

a. First semester (freshman)

- b. Second semester (freshman)
- c. Third semester (sophomore)
- d. Fourth semester (sophomore)
- e. Fifth semester (junior)
- f. Sixth semester (junior)
- g. Seventh semester (senior)
- h. Eighth semester (senior)

2. Please indicate the minimum grade point average (GPA) a student is required to have to participate in any of the study abroad programs your university might offer.

	GPA	Do Not Offer
a. Semester, trimester or quarter	_____	_____
b. Academic year	_____	_____
c. Short-term (summer or less than 10 weeks)	_____	_____
d. Other (please specify) _____	_____	_____

General Study Abroad Office Organization Information

3. Which of the following best describes the administrative unit where the Study Abroad Program Office is now organizationally situated in your institution?

- a. The Study Abroad Program Office is within a department that reports directly to the director of International Education.
- b. The Study Abroad Program Office is an office that reports directly to a vice provost.
- c. The Study Abroad Program Office is an office that reports directly to a provost.
- d. The Study Abroad Program Office is office that reports directly to a dean.
- e. Other (please specify) _____

4. Please tell us the Study Abroad Office budget for the 2005-06 School Year?

5. How many faculty positions were budgeted in your Study Abroad Program Office for the 2005-06 academic year?

_____ Full-time faculty positions

_____ Part-time faculty positions

6. How many classified positions were budgeted in your Study Abroad Program Office for the 2005-06 academic year? *Student workers should not be included in this number.*

_____ Full-time classified positions

_____ Part-time classified positions

7. How many student workers were budgeted in the Study Abroad Program Office for the 2005-06 academic year?

_____ Student worker positions

Of these student workers, how many had participated in a study abroad program in a previous academic year?

8. In which of the following associations that focus on international education is your institution represented as part of the membership? Check all that apply.

- a. Council on International Education Exchange (CIEE)
- b. International Student Exchange Program (ISEP)
- c. Institute of International Education (IIE)
- d. Forum on Education Abroad
- e. NAFSA: Association of International Educators
- f. American Council on Education
- g. American Councils for International Education
- h. Fulbright Association
- i. Other (please specify) _____
- j. none

9. How many years has your university had a study abroad program? Please select only one.

- a. _____ 0-5 years
- b. _____ 6-10 years
- c. _____ 11-15 years
- d. _____ 16-20 years
- e. _____ 21 years or more

10. Does your administrative unit have a mission statement?

☐ Yes

☐ No → If you answer "No," [CLICK HERE](#) to go to question # 12.

11. Please indicate which of the following statements about the mission statement is/are true. Choose all that apply.

☐ The mission statement mentions internationalization of the campus and curriculum.

☐ The mission statement mentions study abroad.

☐ I do not know if the mission statement mentions internationalization.

☐ I do not know if the mission statement mentions study abroad.

12. Does your administrative unit have a strategic plan?

☐ Yes

☐ No → If you answer "No," [CLICK HERE](#) to skip to question # 14

13. Please indicate which of the following statements about the strategic plan is/are true. Choose all that apply.

☐ The strategic plan mentions internationalization of the campus and curriculum.

☐ The strategic plan mentions study abroad.

☐ I do not know if the strategic plan mentions internationalization campus and curriculum.

☐ I do not know if the strategic plan mentions study abroad.

Student Recruitment Activities

14. For each activity you implement, please indicate how effective it is in recruiting students for the study abroad program.

We do not
implement

Very
effective

Somewhat
effective

Somewhat
ineffective

Very
ineffect

Classroom presentations
by Study Abroad Office
Faculty/Staff

Classroom presentations
by study abroad program
alumni

Outreach to students in
campus housing

Distribute/Post fliers

Sponsor a table or booth
at campus fairs/festivals

Presentations by Study
Abroad Office faculty/
staff at department
faculty meetings

Presentations by study
abroad program alumni at
department faculty meetings

Presentations by Study
Abroad Office faculty/
staff at Black Students'
Alliance (or its equivalent)
Club meetings

Presentations by Study
Abroad Office faculty/
staff at Asian American
Students' Alliance
(or its equivalent) Club
meetings

Presentations by Study
Abroad Office faculty/
staff at Hispanic Students'
Alliance (or its equivalent)
Club meetings

Presentations by Study
Abroad Office faculty/
staff at Native American Students'
Alliance (or its equivalent)
Club meetings

Presentations by study
abroad program alumni (students;
not faculty or staff) at
Student Club meetings

E-mails from the Study
Abroad Office/Program
to the entire student
population

Permanent link to the Study
Abroad Office on the
university's front door website

15. Is your university on the semester or quarter system? Check only one.

_____ Semester → After clicking "Semester," CLICK HERE to go to question # 15

_____ Quarter → After clicking "Quarter," CLICK HERE to skip to question # 16

16. When in the academic year do the majority of your study abroad promotional activities occur? Choose only one.

_____ Fall semester

_____ Spring semester

_____ Promotion occurs evenly in the Fall and Spring semesters.

17. When in the academic year do the majority of your study abroad promotional activities occur? Choose only one.

_____ Fall quarter

_____ Winter quarter

_____ Spring quarter

_____ Promotions occur evenly in the Fall, Winter and Spring Quarters

18. What do you see as the barriers to increasing the number of students who study abroad? Please place an "x" on the appropriate line for each item listed below to indicate your opinion on the relative nature of each item as a barrier to study abroad.

Lack of information about

Not a
Barrier

Extreme
Barrier

Health, safety and security issues	Not a Barrier						Extreme Barrier
		_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
Xenophobia	Not a Barrier						Extreme Barrier
		_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	
Other (Please specify)							

19. What do you see as the barriers to increasing the number of **minority** students who study abroad? Please place an "x" on the appropriate line for each item listed below to indicate your opinion on the relative nature of each item as a barrier to study abroad.

Lack of information about study abroad	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Cost of study abroad programs	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Access to financial aid	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Peer pressure	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Institutional resistance to support or accommodate study abroad	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Constrained curricula	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Study abroad credit not counted toward degree requirements	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Lack of foreign language competence	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
General public apathy in the U.S. about study abroad	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier

Faculty apathy	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Family reluctance	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Health, safety and security issues	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Xenophobia	Not a Barrier	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Extreme Barrier
Other (Please specify)							

20. What do you think is the greatest benefit to students who participate in a study abroad program? Please select only one.

- a. Increased level of foreign language proficiency
- b. Increased knowledge in one's major area of study
- c. A broadened intellectual perspective
- d. Cross culture adaptability
- e. More employment opportunities
- f. Other (Please specify) _____

21. Are you trying to increase the number of students in the study abroad program?

_____ Yes
_____ No

Study Abroad Participants' Information

22. First, what is the total number of students that studied abroad during the 2005-06 school year?

_____ Total number of students that studied abroad during the
2005-06 school year

23. Of this total number, how many are White, Black, Hispanic, Asian or Asian American, American Indian, Multiracial or other? Please enter a number for each racial/ethnic group. If data regarding the race of study abroad participants is not collected, please provide your best estimate.

	Number of Participants
White or Caucasian (Includes persons having origins in any of the original persons of Europe, the Middle East or North Africa, but not Hispanic descent)	_____
Black or African American (Includes Jamaican, Bahamian and other Caribbeans of African but not Hispanic descent)	_____
Hispanic or Latino (Includes persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Central or South American or other Spanish Origin or culture)	_____
Asian or Asian American (Includes Pakistanis, Indians and Pacific Islanders)	_____
American Indian (Includes Alaskans)	_____
Multiracial or other (Includes persons that identify as more than one race or other groups not identified above)	_____

24. Are the numbers reported above for students that studied abroad estimated?

_____ Yes
_____ No

Name of person completing the questionnaire _____

Title _____

E-mail address _____

Telephone number _____

Name of University _____